

Administration Of

ACHARYA BOOK

Education In India

EDITED

By

Dr. S. N. Mukerji

Professor of Educational Administration

and

*Dean, Faculty of Education and Psychology
Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda*

WITH A FOREWORD

By

Dr. K. L. Shrimali

*Education Minister
India*

DEPOT

RAOPURA ROAD

BARODA



Foreword

Prof. S. N. Mukerji of the Baroda University has brought out an excellent book on Administration of Education in India. There are very few books on this subject and I feel sure that this book would be of great benefit to the students of Teachers' Colleges and the educational administration in India. The educational system of India has undergone such great changes during the last decade that it is difficult for the writers to keep pace with these changes. Prof. Mukerji has however collected information from all the States of India as well as from the Central Government and has greatly enhanced the importance of this book.

The educational administrator has an important role to play. He must have a clear vision of the society which we wish to build up so that he can mobilise the educational force in the service of the society. Education can be a powerful instrument for building up the society and it is the duty of the administration to use the instrument skilfully. The task of educational administrator does not end with carrying on routine procedures such as inspection, selection of text-books, revision of curriculum, etc. He has also to play a creative role. He has to deal with persons and not with things. It is one of the important tasks of a good administrator to develop the creative potentialities of the persons with whom he comes in contact.

I hope this book will give our educational administrators some vision of the great task which they have been called upon to perform.

K. Shumali.

Preface

The importance of education is universally acknowledged in the modern world: for its own sake, as something which enriches life and helps the individual to fulfil his personality; for its value in raising material standards, which means that increasingly large numbers of people must be trained in increasingly complex and specialised scientific disciplines; and for free societies, as one of the ways of encouraging independence and maturity of judgment on the diffusion of which the future of such societies depend.

Since independence, there has been a rapid progress of education in this country. There were as many as 2,18,171 educational institutions in 1946-47. The number is estimated to have reached 4,60,000 by 1960-61. During the same period the student enrolment has risen from 18.5 million to 43.5 million in 1960-61. The total expenditure on education increased from Rs. 576.6 million in 1946-47 to Rs. 2,977 million in 1960-61.

Besides the quantitative expansion, there has been a qualitative improvement too. The total number of secondary schools increased from 5,297 in 1946-47 to 16,000 in 1960-61. It is expected to rise to 21,800 by 1965-66. There were 19 universities in 1946-47, and as many as 46 in 1960-61. The number is expected to rise to 61 by 1965-66. The enrolment in arts and science colleges has increased from 212,000 in 1946-47 to 340,000 in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to 1,220,000 by 1965-66. There has also been a rapid expansion in the enrolment of colleges of professional and special education from 44,000 in 1946-47 to 275,000 in 1960-61. It is expected to rise further to 460,000 by 1965-66.

At the same time, new buildings have gone up everywhere, the curricula have been enormously enlarged and thousands of teachers are being recruited for the swelling ranks of pupils. The Third Five-Year Plan envisages a more rapid expansion of education than what was achieved under the first two Five-Year plans.

It should, however, be appreciated that in any scheme of educational reconstruction which envisages a large scale development of educational institutions of diverse variations, it is necessary to consider carefully the administrative machinery that should be responsible for the spread of education and its orderly development. Unfortunately, educational administration is a neglected study in India. It is one branch of Indian education, which suffers conspicuously from the paucity of literature. Excepting some official reports, a few periodical surveys and scattered studies of educational problems in some parts of India, very little literature is available in this field.

The main purpose of bringing out this book is to present to the educated world, in India as well as abroad, a comprehensive picture of how education and its different branches are being administered at present. The study has been divided into three parts. Part One deals with educational authorities—the Central Government, State Governments, Local Authorities and Private Agencies. The administration and organisation of the most

important branches of education are treated in Part Two. A detailed account of how education is being administered in various States and Union territories has been presented in Part Three; and an introductory chapter gives a bird's-eye view of the evolution of administration of education in this country.

Educational administration has, however, become so complex to-day that no one person can fairly claim experience in all of its phases. Hence, this work is the joint product of thirty recognised experts of educational administration. It was extremely kind of them to have responded to the invitation extended by the editor and written chapters on their special fields of competence. Their chapters, it is hoped, have the additional value of reflecting their extended administrative experiences in various regions of the country. Educational progress, however, cannot be a static phenomenon; it is a dynamic process. As such the information and facts given in the symposium will require continuous revision and restatement in future editions. Its real value, however, consists in its being an initial attempt at bringing all - or almost all - the facts available together in one single volume.

Each contributor has constantly kept in mind the need for realism and practicality. The student of educational administration will find an emphasis on helpful suggestions, useful illustrations and explicit directions. Typical problems are delineated, and different methods of solving them are shown. The experienced administrator will be able to check his procedures against those described and recommended in this symposium. The editor wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to his co-authors and pay a tribute to their spontaneous co-operation. Although it has taken three years to produce this book, every one will feel that the delay has been richly rewarded. It is, however, hoped that the time and labour expended in its compilation will be amply justified if the educational world appreciates its value and usefulness as a book of reference, as a source of information and as an indicator of the future lines of action.

The editor would also like to place on record his most grateful thanks to Dr. K. L. Shrimali, the Union Minister of Education, for the valuable 'Foreword' he has contributed to the symposium and the encouraging words in which he has spoken about the significance of the publication. The editor is also thankful to the State Directors of Education for their helpful suggestions and for supplying statistical data and other information; to his colleagues, Professor M. S. Patel and Sri D. G. Apte for reading the proofs, and to Dr. D. M. Desai of the Department of Educational Administration for preparing the Index and a number of charts printed in the volume.

S. N. Mukerji
Editor

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A Symposium On The Administration Of Education In India

The Background

The story of the development of educational administration of this country is indeed fascinating. Yet anyone familiar with this development cannot help being impressed with the increasing complexities of administering an adequate and forward-looking programme of education. This chapter gives a bird's eye-view of the salient advances in educational administration, so that a reader can understand easily the trends in other chapters of this book.

THE BACKGROUND

Professor S. N. MUKERJI

INTRODUCTION

In dealing with the present position of educational administration of this country, some knowledge of the background is essential. A state administrative machinery of the modern type did not exist in Pre-British days, and education was not controlled by an external agency. Both the Hindu and Muslim rulers considered it a religious obligation to help the spread of education. Liberal grants and donations were awarded to deserving students. Royal patrons founded universities and other educational institutions and endowed them with funds, but they neither claimed any authority over them nor interfered with their management. Public instruction, so far as it went, was not a business of the State. Education was unconstrained, and no one was taxed for schools.

When the East India Company occupied the country, it did not find a system of education, but a number of educational institutions established in more settled parts of the country. They were the *tols* and *pathsalas*, *madrasas* and *maktabs*. Proceeding from all of them, religious or secular, classical or vernacular, would be a sound of chanting of pupils, reciting (as pupils still recite) what they had learnt by rote, their letters, their arithmetic, their Sanskrit grammar and vocabulary, their Koran. The spirit of the times did not encourage the East Indian Company to undertake any responsibility for the education of the territories which they ruled.

BRITISH EDUCATIONAL POLICY

INTRODUCTION. — Mr. Arther Howell, the famous British historian, remarks, "Education in India under the British Government, was first ignored, then violently and successfully opposed, then conducted on a system now universally admitted to be erroneous and finally placed on its present footing."¹ The administrative policy of the British in the field of education can be conveniently divided into four main periods: (1) A period of indifference (from the early days of the British rule till 1812); (2) Introduction of centralisation (1813-53); (3) Extreme Centralisation (1854-1919); and (4) Provincial Autonomy (1920-47).

¹ A. P. Howell. *Education in British India*. Calcutta, Government Printing, 1872. p. 1.

The First Period (From Early Days — 1812)

The early European settlers were traders. Only gradually the pendulum swung round from commerce to administration. During the period, the East India Company did not recognise the promotion of education among the natives of India as part of its duty or obligation. Like all commercial concerns, its main object was pecuniary gain by trade, and if territorial acquisitions were made, it was more in the nature of investments of capital than laying the foundations of an imperial dominion, having for its object the progress, prosperity and enlightenment of its subjects. For a considerable time after the British Government had been established in India, there was great opposition to any system of instruction for the Indians.

The feelings of the public authorities in England were first tested upon the subject in the year 1793, when Mr. Wilberforce, the famous British philanthropist, proposed to add two clauses to the Charter Act of that year for sending out school masters to India. This encountered the greatest opposition in the Court of Directors, and it was found necessary to withdraw the clauses. That proposal gave rise to a very memorable debate, in which, for the first time, the views of the Court of Directors were expressed. One of the directors stated:

We have lost America from our folly, in having allowed the establishment of schools and colleges, and that it would not do for us to repeat the same act of folly in regard to India, and that if the Natives required anything in the way of education, they must come to England for it.

For twenty years after that period, down to the year 1813, the same feeling of opposition to the education of Indians continued to prevail among the ruling authorities in England. Moreover, education was hardly looked upon as part of the administrator's duty. It was regarded, even in England of those days, as the proper sphere of private enterprise. It is, however, interesting to note that in spite of this indifference on the part of the State, a few individuals of high official rank in the administration of India were not altogether oblivious of the moral and administrative necessity of spreading knowledge among the people of India. This feeling led to the foundation of the Calcutta Madrasa by Warren Hastings in 1781, and of the Sanskrit College at Banaras by Mr. Mr. Jonathan Duncan in 1791. But both these institutions were, on the one hand, purely oriental in their course of studies and on the other hand, their main object was to provide a regular supply of qualified Hindu and Mohamèdan law-officers for the judicial administration.

The Second Period (1813-53)

INTRODUCTION.—Thus the spirit of the times did not encourage the East India Company to undertake the educational responsibility of the territories which they ruled. It may also be noted that in the early stages of the Company's rule, the territories acquired by it had been divided into three presidencies — Bengal, Bombay and Madras — each with a Governor and Council responsible to the Company in London and each entirely independent of the other two. But in 1773, the British Parliament decided to control the destiny of India. No doubt, it could not govern India and only made laws as to how India should be governed. It found it simpler and more effective to operate through one local agent rather than three, and a policy of centralisation was begun by the Regulating Act of 1773, which provided that the Governor of Bengal should become the Governor-General, with authority to 'superintend and control' in certain matters the Governments of Madras and Bombay. Still the presidencies had considerable freedom till 1853, when the post of a separate lieutenant-governor was created for Bengal so as to relieve the Governor-General of the task of local administration and enable him to confine his energies to the supervision of the whole of British India.

From 1773 onwards, the control of the British Parliament also continued to grow and the renewal of the Company's Charter in 1813 is an important land-mark in the history of the educational policy of the British rule in India. The Section 43 of this Charter declared:

It shall be lawful for the Governor-General-in-Council to direct that a sum of not less than one lakh of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature, and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

'It shall be lawful' — it was not yet obligatory. This declaration may be said to represent the beginning of a new epoch in the history of public education in India, and, being the first legislative enactment in that behalf, possesses historical value and interest, as indicating in the formal language, the early policy of public instruction as part of the administration of the British Rule.

Some organisation was required — if only to disburse the grant. A General Committee of Public Instruction was at last constituted in Bengal (1823) containing ten members of the civil service. Another committee was established in Madras. The former was replaced in 1842 by a Council of Education, and a similar change took place in Madras. In Bombay, there was a Board of Education. The Bengal Council of

THE BACKGROUND

Education, however, merely looked after special institutions. The majority of the educational institutions were placed under the General Department of the Government of India. In 1843, educational control in the North-Western Provinces was transferred to the new government at Agra. Finally in the Despatch of 1854, the Company's responsibility for education was emphatically brought to the notice of the administrator, the need of expansion and systematic promotion was affirmed, and the lines of a definite policy were laid down.

Though the presidencies and provinces had considerable freedom in educational matters, yet the Court of Directors and the Governor-General enunciated the educational policy for the whole country. This can be evident from the several despatches issued by the Court of Directors giving directions to various governors and the governors-general over educational policy. It also prompted Lord William Bentinck to issue a brief resolution on 7 March, 1835 and Lord Auckland to issue his minute in 1839. The substance of the first document was that the great object of the government ought to be the promotion of European literature and sciences among the natives of India, that the medium to be used was the English language, and that the education fund should be employed on English Education alone. Auckland's Minute further confirmed this policy.

Even financial control was centralized in the Government of India. Under the Charter Act of 1833, the last vestiges of the East India Company's commercial monopoly disappeared, and it practically ceased to be a commercial body. It became a political authority in India on behalf of the British Parliament. It also centralized all financial control in the Government of India. All the revenues of the country were described as imperial funds and were credited to the Government of India and all expenditure could only be incurred under the express authority of that government. The state governments prepared their budgets but these had to be sanctioned by the Government of India and a state government could not incur an expenditure, however small, or create a new post, however, humble without obtaining the prior approval of the Government of India. It was under this inconvenient system that the states had to execute their educational programmes.

The Third Period (1854-1919)

ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY. — The process of centralisation, which began in 1773, took its final shape in 1858 when a secretary of state was appointed. He was made responsible to the British Parliament, which thus assumed control of Indian administration. This method of government approximated more and more closely related to the method

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

which had long been employed in other dependent territories of the British Empire and which had been called "Crown Colony government". Its basic principle is parliamentary control, operating through a secretary of state, who in turn operates through a governor. He is aided and advised by an executive council normally consisting of officials only, but he can overrule their advice provided that he informs the Secretary of State that he has done so.

In British India, as in a crown colony, the government till 1919, was necessarily of this kind. It was unitary in nature, and there was no trace of federal idea in the constitution. The main features of such a type of administration were:

1. The provinces had no right of their own. They were the agents of Central Government, which in turn was subordinate to the secretary of state.
2. The Central Government had a firm grip on the provinces. There was no legal division between their financial resources and those of the Central.
3. Neither the Central Government nor a provincial government could introduce any bill without the approval of the secretary of state.
4. All the superior posts were held by the members of the All-India services, who were recruited by the secretary of state.¹

CENTRALIZATION IN EDUCATION. — The above principles also guided the relation between the Government of India and provincial governments in the field of education. The Montagu-Chelmsford Report emphasises the powers which the Government of India possessed, and in varying degrees exercised a great influence on the control of provincial legislation, finance and administration. Indeed, in one passage referring to the principle that the Government of India is one and indivisible, it says "from this point of view the local governments are literally the agents of the Government of India."² The Report recognised that in view of the existing arrangements a central control over provincial expenditure was "not merely justifiable but inevitable."³ The codes of instructions also imposed "definite restraints upon the powers of provincial governments to create new appointments or to raise emoluments"⁴ and this brought the Government of India into close touch with the domestic administration of the provinces. All new proposals for expenditure over and above a given sum required the previous sanction of the Government of India, and for proposals involving an expenditure below that sum, sanction was still required if an appointment to the Indian Educational Service was involved. It was incumbent on provincial governments to submit for the previous sanction of the Government of India and the Secretary of State all projects for educational

¹ See Colclough. *The Constitutional Problem in India*, London, O.U.P., 1944. pp. 10-13.
² Montagu-Chelmsford Report, para 120. ³ *Ibid.*, para 109. ⁴ *Ibid.*, para 112.

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legislation before introduction. Moreover, the universities were subject to the several University Acts which had been passed from time to time by the Central Legislature, and therefore all amendments to those Acts were subject to the same authority, while legislation for the creation of new universities, was introduced by the Central Government. The Government of India were not only concerned with administration but with general policy. The Report also pointed out that "in the past the Government of India have regarded themselves as distinctly charged with the duty of framing policy and inspiring reforms for the whole of India."¹

Sufficient care was taken to enunciate an educational policy by means of despatches from the Court of Directors and from the Secretary of State, and of resolutions of the Government of India, the more important of which were published in 1854, 1859, 1884, 1904 and 1913. The Government of India also appointed three important commissions of inquiry (1882, 1902 and 1917). It also passed Acts of incorporation of universities at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1857, and later on incorporated the Indian Universities Act of 1904.

A brief survey of these important events of Indian education will help the reader to understand the trends in the educational development of this country during the period. The Educational (Sir Charles Wood's) Despatch of 1854 is the most important landmark in the history of Indian education. It still forms the charter of education in India. It commended to the special attention of the Government of India, the improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and vernacular, and prescribed as the means for the attainment of these objects:

1. The construction of a separate department of administration for education in each state;
2. The institution of a university at each of the three presidency towns;
3. The establishment of institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools;
4. The maintenance of the existing government colleges and high schools, and the increase of their number when necessary;
5. The establishment of new middle schools;
6. Increased attention to vernacular schools, indigenous or other, for elementary education; and
7. The introduction of grant-in-aid.

¹ *Ibid.*, para 118.

But the universities were not immediately established and a committee was set up for preliminary discussions. Towards the end of 1856, the Government of India approved the general plan of the committee, drafts of bills for the establishment of the three universities were soon prepared, and the Government of India passed Acts of all the three universities in 1857 — Calcutta (January 24), Bombay (July 18) and Madras (September 5). While the Governor-General was the Chancellor of the Calcutta University, the governors of Bombay and Madras were the heads of the other two. The Calcutta Senate had 38 members of whom 6 were Indians while Bombay had five Indians in a senate of 29, and Madras had three out of 40. Thus the universities were dominated by officials and non-Indians, and were controlled more or less by government.

But the very year in which the Indian universities were founded, the First War of Independence broke out. It brought to an end the government of the Company, and the administration of India passed into the hands of the British Crown. The regime of the Court of Directors ended, and the post of the Secretary of State for India was created. As soon as order was restored, a new educational despatch emanated from Lord Stanley, the first secretary of state, in 1859. It proposed to examine the educational development after 1854 and to see whether education had something to do with the happenings of 1857. The despatch reaffirmed the policy of 1854 with but few modifications.

In 1882, the Government of India, passed the Resolution, No. 1/60, dated the 3rd February, 1882, by which it appointed a commission to report on the subject of education. Writing ten years later, Sir William Hunter, who had been the Chairman of the Commission, summarized the outcome of its labour as follows:

In 1882-83 an Education Commission, appointed by Lord Ripon's Government, endeavoured to complete the scheme inaugurated in 1834 by the despatch of Lord Halifax. It carefully examined the conditions of education in each province, indicated defects, and laid down principles for further development. The results of its labours have been to place public instruction on a broader and more popular basis, to encourage private enterprise in teaching, to give a more adequate recognition to the indigenous schools, and to provide that the education of the people shall advance at a more equal pace along with the instruction of the higher classes. Female education and the instruction of certain backward classes of the community, such as the Muhammadans, received special attention from the Commission. The general effect of the recommendations is to develop the Department of Public Instruction into a system of truly national education for India, conducted and supervised in an increasing degree by the people themselves.¹

¹ W. W. Hunter. *The Indian Empire*. 1883. p. 562.

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The Government of India accepted the above recommendations in the Resolution of 1884, coupled with the local self-government acts of 1883 to 1885. These paved the way for a gradual devolution of the management of government schools upon municipalities and district boards. Until 1900 there was no modification in the policy laid down in 1884. In that year the Secretary of State drew the attention of the Government of India to the necessity for the continuance of government control, guidance and assistance in higher education, and for the maintenance of a number of government schools. Lord Curzon, then governor-general, was profoundly interested in education, and in February 1900, the Government of India published a resolution containing the following passage

The Government of India cannot consent to divest itself of the responsibility that attaches both to its interest and its prerogatives. If it is to lend the resources of the State to the support of certain schools, it cannot abrogate its right to a powerful voice in the determination of the course which is there imparted.

Curzon emphasized this passage in a speech made at an educational conference which he had summoned at Simla in 1901. Under his lead, the doctrine of state withdrawal adopted till then was officially abandoned, the inspecting staff was strengthened, and a vigilant policy of inspection and supervision of private schools was adopted in lieu of the old policy of *laissez-faire*. The Secretary of State also reminded the Government of India in 1900 of the necessity of government control, guidance and assistance in higher teaching, and indicated the desirability of maintaining a certain number of government schools.

Two main causes were responsible for this change in the administrative policy. In the first place, the tide of political consciousness had arisen in the country and the government naturally wanted to control education. In the second place, England's educational policy at home had its repercussions in India too. Since the beginning of the present century, England began paying attention to the improvement of quality in education and the Balfour Act of 1902 brought private enterprise in the field of elementary education under control. The officials in India also considered it necessary to adopt the same policy in India too.

Another important result of the Simla Conference was the Indian Universities Commission of 1902. Consultation and inquiry followed and many of the views of that commission were embodied in the Indian Universities Act of 1904 — a hotly opposed measure, which regularised the constitution of the governing bodies and tightened the control of the universities over their affiliated colleges. Another was an expert travelling committee to advise on technical education. A third was the bestowal of renewed and increased

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attention upon mass education. A fixed policy of the government was reaffirmed and elaborated in the Resolution of March 11, 1904, which covered a wide field. On the main question of the control of education, it accepted the devolution policy of the commission of 1882, but laid stress on the necessity for adequate safeguards, as shown in the following passage:

The progressive devolution of primary, secondary and collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Education Commission in 1883, and the advice has been generally acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that, in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education.

In 1913, the Government of India issued another resolution on education. It surveyed the whole field of education. It refused to adopt the principle of compulsion in primary education for financial and administrative reasons, but it affirmed the necessity of concentrating the direct energies of the State and the bulk of its available resources on the improvement and expansion of primary education on a voluntary basis. It also advocated a reduction of the areas of the five existing Indian universities (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Punjab and Allahabad). These were of the affiliating type. It also announced a policy of instituting teaching and residential universities and urged the necessity for providing facilities for research in every branch of learning.

This was followed in 1917 by the appointment of the Calcutta University Commission to tackle the question of higher education in Bengal and incidentally, to give a lead to India as a whole — for the conditions present in their extreme form in Bengal were present also in the university-ridden systems of the other provinces. The report of the commission — one of the most interesting of Indian educational documents — conceived and written in a very helpful and sympathetic spirit, found that the web of higher education in Bengal was 'of a mingled yarn, good and ill together'. So far as the administrative aspect is concerned, the main recommendations were as follows:

1. The intermediate classes of the university were to be transferred to secondary institutions and the stage of admission to the university should be that of the present intermediate examination;
2. Secondary and intermediate education was to be controlled by a board of secondary education and not by a university;

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8. The teaching resources of the city of Calcutta were to be organised to create a real teaching university, and the mofussil colleges were to be organised in such a way as would encourage the gradual rise of new university centres by the concentration of higher learning at a few points.

The report had two very important results on higher education. In the first place, it gave a great impetus to the creation of new universities in this country. Many of them are unitary in nature. In the second place, the movement for creating boards of intermediate and/or high school examinations began. And within a short period, secondary education has been freed from the domination by the university.

Besides taking active and direct steps of the above nature, the Government of India issued a number of circulars between 1906 and 1920. These deal with subjects as varied as the improvement of primary and vernacular education, the abolition of fees in primary schools, the training of primary and secondary school teachers, the improvement of secondary education, the education of Muhammadans, the education of girls and women, the education of factory children, text-book committees, educational literature and the Boy Scout movement. Particular stress was laid on the necessity of a definite policy for the development of vernacular education. The Government of India also summoned a number of conferences of provincial educational officers to consider problems of education. It is thus clear that the Government of India were keenly alive to the need for an all-India policy

FINANCE —The Despatch of 1854 introduced a new educational system in this country, and the British Parliament began to take interest in the education of Indians. But the financial administration continued to be centralised. There was only one budget for India as a whole and state governments had comparatively little financial responsibility for education, or for any other branch of administration. All revenues were paid into the Imperial (central) treasury to the credit of the Imperial (Central) Government and the money so collected was annually distributed by grants among the different state (local) governments for the various services detailed in the annual estimates which were submitted by them to the Finance Department of the Government of India. The local governments had very little direct share or interest in increasing the revenues, inasmuch as the control of the public purse was strictly centralised. No single item of the public establishments (of the local governments) could be increased without Imperial (central) sanction nor could the estimates be altered or exceeded, without such sanction, unless a reappropriation of funds allotted for a minor head of expenditure was made to another head of the same amount.

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In 1871, Lord Mayo introduced a system of decentralisation, according to which he transferred the control of certain departments (jail, police, roads and education) to provincial governments. The details varied from province to province and from time to time. But this general pattern was followed in all cases, and settlements on these lines were made in 1882-83, 1886-7, 1891-2 and 1896-97.

Lord Curzon put an end to the above system and introduced in 1904 a quasi-permanent system, i.e., not liable to be changed except under special circumstances. These were declared permanent in 1912. Between 1902 and 1919, the Government of India also allocated generous grants to provincial governments for expenditure on education. The following table supplies the necessary details:

TABLE 1

Central Grant to Provincial Governments for Education, 1902-19*

sr. No.	Year	Amount	Purpose
1	1902	Rs. 40 lakhs recurring	General grant for education
2	1904-05	Rs. 5 " "	Universities and colleges
3	— do —	Rs. 2½ " "	European education
4	— do —	Rs. 2½ " "	Technical education
5	— do —	Rs. 35 " "	Primary education
6	1910-11	Rs. 93 lakhs non-recurring	General grant
7	1912-13	Rs. 60 lakhs recurring	Primary education (50 lakhs) and higher education (10lakhs)
8	— do —	Rs. 387.18 lakhs non-recurring	General grant
9	1913-14	Rs. 55 lakhs recurring	General grant for education
10	— do —	Rs. 95 thousand non-recurring	—
11	1914-15	Rs. 9 lakhs recurring	General grant for education
12	— do —	Rs. 12.25 lakhs non-recurring	This includes Rs. 10 lakhs for hostels of Calcutta Uni.
13	1917-18	Rs. 30 lakhs recurring	Training of teachers and improvement of their pay
14	1918-19	Rs. 30 " "	Primary education
15	1918-19	Rs. 30 " "	Agricultural education

* S. Nurullah and J. P. Naik. *A History of Education in India*. Bombay, Macmillan, 1951. p. 437.

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The procedure in respect of the above grants was that each province submitted proposals indicating the lines on which it proposed to spend additional money and the amount required for the purpose, and that the Government of India, after considering these proposals in relation to each other, distributed the money available in the manner which seemed to it most equitable. It is a matter of regret that effective steps were not taken to ensure that the educational policy outlined by the Government of India was carried out in the expenditure of the grants. It may be noted that by the end of 1918, the Government of India had formulated a scheme of expansion for the whole of India, by which there would have been a general compulsion on all local bodies throughout the country to provide facilities for the extension of primary education, so as to double the number of pupils in primary schools within ten years. It was proposed that towards the cost the Imperial Government should find one-third, provincial governments one-third and local bodies one-third. The cost of training additional teachers was to be divided between the Government of India and the provincial governments. In view of the publication of the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on Indian Constitutional Reforms, however, the direction and financing of this scheme by the Government of India had to be abandoned and the Government of India were prevented by the constitutional position from giving further direction or financial help to the provinces.

CENTRAL MACHINERY OF ADMINISTRATION. — It is really surprising to note that during the 19th century the Government of India had not established an independent machinery for the administration of education at the centre though it was advocating an all-India policy of education. Education was administered by the Home Department, which was already overstrained. But there was no independent officer in charge of it. Partially influenced by the Board of Education Act, 1899 of England and partially realising the clear necessity for such a post, Lord Curzon appointed a Director-General of Education for India in 1901. While making such an appointment, he observed:

Education is at present a sub-heading of the work of the Home Department.... When questions of supreme educational interest are referred to us for decision, we have no expert to guide us, no staff trained to the business, nothing but precedents recorded in our files to fall back upon. In every other department of scientific knowledge.... the Government possesses expert advisers. In education, the most complex and most momentous of all, we have none.

The new officer was entrusted with a responsibility, "to see that the new energy suddenly infused into the system was well-maintained and well-directed towards the chosen end." He was attached to the Home Department.

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The position continued for some years. In 1900, Lord Morley and Lord Minto took steps to improve the organisation of the Government of India by transferring education from the Home Department to a new Department of Education." Besides its main duties it dealt with sanitation, local self-government, ecclesiastical matters, archaeology and museum. The post of the Director-General of Education was, however, abolished or rather absorbed into the new department, which comprised, besides the Members of Council, two secretaries and an assistant secretary. But the post was revived under a changed designation in 1915 and the officer in charge was to be thereafter styled as the Educational Commissioner. A prominent feature of the new department was the Bureau of Education whose main functions were to publish Occasional Reports on educational matters in addition to the annual and quinquennial reviews, to collect and to circulate valuable information regarding educational developments in India and elsewhere, and to build up an educational library.

ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES. — Another notable feature of the period is the organisation of the Indian Educational Service (I.E.S.) in 1896. Accordingly all higher posts in the administrative line were made the exclusive preserve of this service which was centrally recruited in England. The majority of them, who in those days were of British race, had a bureaucratic outlook. They were conscious that they formed a single body of men, on whom depended the future of British Empire. They held the key-posts in education departments, and could be transferred to any part of India. In fact, it was through this service that the Government of India controlled the entire education. It was in 1924 that the recruitment to this service was stopped as a result of the recommendation of the Lee Commission on Superior Civil Services in India, and the Indianisation of Superior Services in education began in India.

CONCLUSION. — It is thus quite clear that during this period the Government of India was keenly alive to the need of an all-India educational policy. But with the expansion of British territories the drawbacks of such a policy were becoming apparent. As Lord Curzon himself expressed:

"Is there", he asked, "an educational policy of the Government of India at all? If so, is it observed, and what is the machinery by which it is carried out? Is there any due supervision of this vast and potent engine of creative energy, or after the furnace has been fed, are the wheels left to go round and the piston-rod to beat without control?" I cannot answer these questions as I should wish. There seems to be a misdirection, and in some cases a waste of force, for which I cannot hold the Government free from blame. I observe a conflict of system which finds no justification in the administrative severance, or in the local conditions, of separate provinces and areas!"

¹ *Lord Curzon in India, 1898-1905*. London, Macmillan, 1906, pp. 318-19.

It also indicates the conflict between the policies of centralisation, and of devolution. To quote the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, it also showed, "No single administration could support the Atlantean load."¹ The provincial governments were resenting the Centre's directorial methods of defining their policy. They were becoming more and more critical of central control and out-spoken in their comments on it. They developed their own individuality and aired their own opinions, just as the Central Government became increasingly impatient of interference from the White Hall. The administrative machinery had also become complicated. At the same time, there was dearth of administrative officers. Hence the educational administration was done not much by officers competent to do it, but by clerical subordinates whom Burke describes as 'tyrants of the desk'. In the meanwhile, the political agitation had started in the country and the Montagu-Chelmsford Report was drawn up. Ultimately, an Act of Parliament was passed in 1919. It marks the beginning of parliamentary government in India.

The Fourth Period (1920-47)

DYARCHY. - - The Montford Reforms introduced dyarchy or double rule in provincial administration, according to which, the administration of a province was divided into two halves — the reserved and transferred. Subjects like Law, Order, Land-revenue, were reserved to the charge of the governor and his executive council consisting of government official members. They were made responsible to the Secretary of State through the Government of India. Other subjects like education, agriculture, public health and local government were 'transferred' to the charge of the governor acting with his ministers, who were made responsible to the electorate of the province and not to the Government of India. Thus education, with small exceptions, became a provincial and transferred subject in charge of a minister. But European Education was maintained as a reserved subject. This was the first step towards provincial autonomy in Indian Constitution.

Such a system of devolution of authority from the Centre to the provinces gave rise to certain complications. In the first place, it precluded the Government of India from spending its own revenues on any provincial object and hence the system of giving "doles" to provincial governments for education was discontinued. This led to a serious financial handicap to provincial governments. In the second place, it created a good deal of ill-feeling between Indian Ministers of Education and the I.E.S. officers, since the ministers obtained very limited control over them. Ultimately, the recruitment

¹ Montagu-Chelmsford Report. para 120.

the I.E.S. was stopped in 1924 as a result of the recommendations of the Lee Commission on Superior Civil Services in India. In the third place, the transfer of control of education to provincial governments not only isolated them from the Central Government but it isolated them from one another. The new policy encouraged and exaggerated form of provincialism, overlapping of experiments, and wastage in energy and money. It also deprived the Government of India of the power of guiding or formulating an educational policy for the whole country, and it was no longer possible for it to act as an advisory and co-ordinating agency on problems of all-India importance.

CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD OF EDUCATION. — The need for a co-ordinating agency was felt both by the Central and provincial governments. On the functions of the Central Government, the Sadler Commission had remarked:

It must be obvious that the Government of India can perform an invaluable function by... defining the aims of general policy, by giving advice and assistance to local governments and to universities, by acting as an impartial arbiter in cases of dispute, by protecting disregarded interests, by supplying organised information as to the development of educational ideas in the various provinces, by helping to obtain the service of scholars from other countries, by co-ordinating the work of various universities, and by guarding against needless duplication and overlapping in the provision of more costly forms of education.¹

The above passage was quoted in the opening paragraph of the letter from the Government of India of August 21, 1920, announcing to the provincial governments the creation of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE). It was established in 1921. The chief function of the board was to offer expert advice on important educational matters referred to it. The board satisfied a real need but was suddenly abolished in the interest of economy two years later on the recommendations of the Inchcape Committee. The axe of retrenchment did not stop with it. It even went further. The Bureau of Education was also abolished and the Department of Education was amalgamated with that of Health and Agriculture. The new department was styled as the Department of Education, Health and Agriculture. It was put under the charge of a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council.

The drawback of such an ill-thought out economy became evident very soon and the CABE was revived in 1935 according to the suggestions of the Hartog Committee. The Bureau of Education was also revived in 1937 on the recommendations of the CABE. It was again reconstituted and strengthened in 1945.

¹ *Calcutta University Commission's Report*, Vol. III. pp. 234-35.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1935.—The second mile-stone in the development of provincial autonomy was the Government of India Act of 1935. Under the Act the provinces were for the first time recognised in law as separate entities, exercising executive and legislative powers in their own field in their own right, free in normal circumstances from Central control in that field. The Act was implemented in 1937. It introduced complete provincial autonomy and entrusted ministers of education with greater power than ever enjoyed by them under the Montford Reforms. The distinction between transferred and reserved subjects disappeared and the ministers acquired full control over educational services owing to the extinction of the I.E.S. In the meanwhile, national consciousness was fully aroused in the country and the people realised that the progress of their motherland depends mainly on educational developments. The popular ministers showed increasing interest in educational problems of their provinces and new schemes for educational reconstruction were launched. With effect from September 1, 1945, the Government of India trifurcated the Department of Education, Health and Agriculture, and constituted three separate departments, viz., the departments of Education, Health and Agriculture. The Department of Education was raised to the dignity of a ministry in 1947. These changes happened on the suggestions of the Sargent Report, which was influenced by the Butler Act (1944) of England.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN FREE INDIA

With the attainment of independence in 1947, the Department of Education at the Centre in the Dominion of India was constituted into a separate Ministry of Education, and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad was our first Minister of Education. The Constitution of Free India has not deviated from the original pattern, and education at all stages with two important qualifications still remains a state subject. These qualifications are in respect of university education and technical education. In view of the need for coordination of facilities and the maintenance of standards at the higher levels, the Constitution has placed on the Central Government the responsibility in this regard. The heavy expenses involved in scientific and technical education require that there should be avoidance of any duplication in these fields. The promotion of higher scientific and technical education is, therefore, a central responsibility.

It has been pointed out that since the advent of the Montford Reforms, the Government of India had practically been divorced from education. It stopped giving financial aids to the states. But as soon as independence was attained and a national ministry assumed office in New Delhi, the interest of the Central Government in education was

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reviewed and Central grants began to flow freely for educational reconstruction in the states, although the Indian Constitution accepted the supremacy of the states in educational matters and gave no more control to the Government of India than what it already had under Government of India Act, 1935. It is unnecessary to describe here the activities of the Central Ministry of Education, but it goes without saying that the revival of Central interest in education and the restarting of the Central grants for educational reconstruction have been of immense assistance to the state governments.

After the death of Maulana Azad, the original ministry was divided into two independent ministries, viz., (1) the Ministry of Education and (2) the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.

CONCLUSION

This is the evolution of the administrative policy in education in Modern India. It was highly centralised till 1921, when the provinces had to follow what the Centre decided. Montford Reforms no doubt terminated the Central control over education, but it also resulted in a total absence of Central interest in education and also in a total discontinuance of Central grants. Such an isolation policy on the part of the Centre adversely affected the cause of education, and the state ministers of education were generally not able to secure the finances necessary for the development of education. With the advent of independence, the Centre soon changed its attitude. The Centre and the states are today working in close partnership — partly because the country is free today, partly because it is one political party that is ruling the country, and partly because of the commitments of the Five-Year Plans.

A number of schemes of educational reforms are operating in the country today. It is indeed true that their success depends primarily upon the spirit and confidence of the teachers, but it is idle to hope for consistent improvement in the service of education as a whole unless administration is efficient. If teachers are to be given a chance of doing good work, two things at least are necessary. There must be integrity of administration throughout and there must be a continuity in educational policy. Unfortunately, things are not very happy in this country so far as these two aspects are concerned. The reasons are several. The fact which stands out most prominent is that the educational policy of the country is not directed by educationists but by politicians. Not long ago, I heard a very highly placed person giving his wholehearted support to the slogan: 'Administrators on top, experts on tap.' As a principle applicable to education of all countries, and India of all places, nothing in my opinion could be more inept or

PART ONE

Educational Authorities

CHAPTER

2. *Principles Of Administrative Organization*
 3. *Government Of India And Education*
 4. *States And Education*
 5. *Local Authorities And Education*
 6. *Private Agencies And Education*
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The operation of an educational system is an extremely complex matter. Particularly this is true of the existing educational structure of this country which has been designed accidentally and has not grown out of any tradition or cultural practices.

This Part examines the structure and techniques through which an educational system operates. Some of the principles are basic to any culture, but others are distinctly limited to the operation of Indian conditions. The Part also discusses in detail the structure of Indian education—Central, State and local authorities as well as the role of the private agencies in the development of education in this country.

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

Dr. S. M. DIWEKAR

NATURE OF ADMINISTRATION

WHAT ADMINISTRATION MEANS. — It is imperative at the very outset to be clear about the concept of administration in general and of educational administration in particular. Administration, as is commonly understood by the term, is a machinery through which any organization or institution is managed. It is a means set up for a smooth and efficient working of a political government or of an educational structure.

The fact, however, is quite clear and it is that administration or management of any kind is directly or indirectly concerned with groups of people. As Sri L. S. Chandrakant says, "Although there is no single accepted definition of administration, there is general agreement that it is concerned with the dealing and coordinating of the activities of groups of people."¹

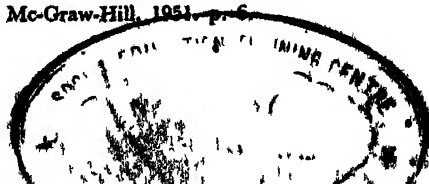
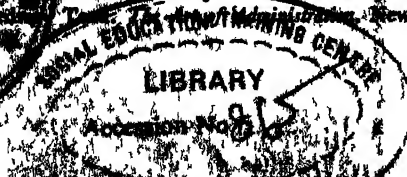
Administration thus is a machinery dealing with groups of people politically, socially or educationally. "In common usage," says J. B. Sears, "the term administration is roughly synonymous with management. In its proper use in education it contains much that we mean by the word government, and is closely related in content to such words as superintendence, supervision, planning, oversight, direction, organization, control, guidance and regulation."²

There is a school of thought which emphatically asserts that administration of any sort is an art. Particularly when we admit that all administration deals with human individuals or groups, it tends to become an art rather than a science. These dealings with human beings cannot be done mechanically nor can they be done ruthlessly. They have to be done tactfully, skilfully and cautiously. Hence it is that administration is regarded as an art by many thinkers. "Administration is, in short, a fine art because it summons," says Ordway Tead, "an imposing body of special talents on behalf of a collaborative creation which is integral to the conduct of civilized living today. This art is comprised of the ongoing operation of numerous organizations through which human individuals are hopefully gaining many of their necessary and rightful satisfactions."³

¹ Ministry of Education, India. *The Education Quarterly*. September, 1957. p. 254.

² J. B. Sears. *The Nature of Administrative Progress*. New York, Mc-Graw-Hill, 1930. p. 4.

³ Ordway Tead. *The Art of Administration*. New York, Mc-Graw-Hill, 1951. p. 6.



EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION. — Educational administration as a special branch has been defined and interpreted by many thinkers in many ways. Some hold that the purpose of educational administration is to enable an organization or an institution to carry out with the maximum efficiency the purpose for which the organization or institution exists. Another school of thought believes that it has to be a co-operative democratic process. Policies and controls must be democratically executed. Freedom of educational workers must be provided. All these views only go to prove that the subject of educational administration is a living and dynamic subject. The child is the centre of this process and hence dynamism ought to be the very soul of administration. We all know how according to Sir Graham Balfour, the eminent English administrator, the purpose of administration is, "to enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers, at a cost within the means of the state, under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their learning."

EDUCATIONAL AND THE OTHER TYPES OF ADMINISTRATION. — Administration attained importance in Government long before it did in education or in business; its appearance as a separate study in business and in education hardly dates back to the middle of the last century. The most striking difference between the administration of education and that of other business lies in the fact that the former is a human process very much influenced and controlled by various factors such as the philosophical, psychological, sociological, historical and the political. The process of educational administration has taken into account the above factors as a whole and yet we cannot say that it is philosophy, psychology, sociology, history or politics.

Educational administration again is different from other types of administration in that it concerns itself with the development of human personality. As such administration of education has to take into account life as a whole ranging from childhood to manhood. It is thus a difficult and a delicate task which educational administration undertakes. In other types of administration no attention is paid to the inner development of the individual. They are satisfied with the outer or objective growth and display. Education being a process of the total development of the individual, its administration cannot afford to be divorced from this ideal. Educational administration, therefore, cannot be rigid and static. It has to be free in that it has to allow scope for changes and what is known as dynamism. Experimentation and trial and error have to be allowed freely in the administration of education.

CONFLICTING IDEOLOGIES IN ADMINISTRATION. — Education in a large country like India is administered at three different levels: (1) Central Government, (2) State

Governments and (3) Local authorities. Each plays a vital role in administration and each has definite functions. There are conflicting opinions regarding the areas of educational administration best reserved for the Central Government and others which can best be dealt with at state and local levels. There are different practices in different countries, and there are various reasons for these differences. Questions are also raised : Are there virtues in a balance of forces within the overall pattern of administration? Can this be a safeguard to educational freedom? It will be necessary to consider some of these problems, facing education at present.

CENTRALIZATION VS. DECENTRALIZATION.— Centralization and decentralization of educational administration are the most important patterns we come across in this field. According to Vernon Mallinson, "The principle of centralization of education was first enunciated by Law Chalotais in 1703, upheld by the writers of the French Revolution, and cast in its final practical mould, by Napoleon in 1808."¹ The example of the U.S.S.R. is the most striking one so far as the system of centralization of education is concerned.

Between the two systems of centralization and decentralization of educational administration, the latter is gaining ground day in and day out. Centralization, no doubt has its advantages. Educational progress can be uniform. There is a better coordination of educational efforts, overlapping in experiments of different regions can be avoided, and the needs of the entire nation can be kept in the forefront. The Centre with its rich resources can easily finance big projects of education. But there is the other side also. Under the centralized system, for example, there is a greater inertia to change and the needs of distant and different regions are likely to be overlooked in a big country.

As against the centralized system, there is the commonly known pattern of decentralization. The U.S.A. claims to be the pioneer in this field. Local effort is encouraged and opportunities are available for small groups and individual citizens to participate in the business of education.

Since 1919, India has also adopted a system of decentralization and education has become a state subject. In the initial stages, educational progress, however, suffered due to complete decentralization and because the Centre did not give any financial aids for education. Since the advent of independence, the position has changed and the Centre is taking interest in the educational development of the country.

¹Vernon Mallinson. *The Study of Comparative Education*. London, William Heinemann Ltd., 1957. p. 97.

It is thus clear that complete decentralization is as much harmful as the domination by the Centre, and that there is a need of harmonious balance between centralization and decentralization. The best areas reserved for the Centre are: (1) equalizing inequalities among the states and individuals; (2) gathering and publishing information, and providing other informal services; (3) conducting cooperative research; (4) furnishing constructive leadership in the development and improvement of educational efforts; (5) higher education; (6) vocational education; and (8) international relations.

There is a striking resemblance between the Indian and American systems of education. It has, of course, to be remembered that the role of the Central or the Federal government in the U.S.A. is not so prominent and predominant as it is in India and yet a critical observer like Prof. Humayun Kabir emphasizes that:

In Law, the position of the Office of Education (U.S.A.) is not very different from that of the Ministry of Education in India... The difference in the attitude of the Ministry of Education and the Office of Education may perhaps be expressed by saying that the Office of Education, even when it influences national policies, is reluctant to admit the fact, while the Ministry of Education is continually taking the initiative in discussing problems, devising remedies, and framing policies which are then translated into action by the State Governments and Local education authorities¹

Regarding the educational responsibilities, the President's Advisory Committee in the U.S.A. has enumerated six major functions: (1) to provide leadership for the entire educational system of the state; (2) to assist those in the local school units in the solution of educational problems; (3) to coordinate educational activities throughout the state; (4) to aid in determining the effectiveness of the state's programme of education; (5) to direct research activities necessary to the solution of educational problems as they arise; and (6) to advise the governor and the legislature with respect to educational legislation.² These recommendations with slight modifications have wider implications to Indian conditions too.

What about the local authorities? In an age of democracy, the local authority should act as an agent of the state and of the community in putting the plan for education into operation. It should also act as the agent of the people within the community by enlarging and improving the state plan in accordance with the broad powers

¹ Indian Ministry of Education. *Educational Quarterly*. December, 1956.

² Cocking, Walter D., and Gilmore, Charles H. *Organization and Administration of Education*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 2. Washington, D. C., Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1938. pp. 84-85.

granted by the legislation to meet the distinctive community needs. In the U.S.A., the organization, operation and control of schools are the functions of the local school boards. Local initiative, freedom of action, and the right of the people in the local districts to make unlimited choices reign supreme in that country. As Davies and Hosler say.

In some hundred-thousand school boards throughout our country, our people are practising democratic self-government. They are keeping the art of local control, of home rule, alive. It is not entirely a matter of speculation to predict that, should local school boards be abolished in this country, we would be well on the way toward a highly centralized form of government in which there would be little chance for our Constitution and Bill of Rights to function. To paraphrase a recently used slogan: If America is "the arsenal of democracy," then local governments and local school boards are the seed-bed of democracy.¹

In India, as early as 1882, the Government adopted as a general principle of policy that the object of local government is "to train the people in the management of their own local affairs... that local bodies should not be subjected to unnecessary control but should learn by making mistakes and profiting by them." This sentiment has been repeated subsequently on numerous occasions, but there is a standing complaint that the existing local bodies have failed to discharge their educational responsibilities even today. It is pointed out that illiteracy, lack of adequate experience in representative government, and limited taxable resources at the local level make decentralization in any large measure a difficult problem. It is indeed true that the ideal of local autonomy is worthy of pursuit and that quite a lot can be done by way of realizing the ideal in practice. Yet, with the records of the existing local bodies before the country, one rightly feels that any hasty step towards a major change in the present administrative set-up will do incalculable harm to the cause of education.

The English system is supposed to be a beautiful blending of the two extreme types — centralization and decentralization. They have a central authority on one hand and the local authority of education — commonly known as L.E.As. — on the other. The state governments are unknown to their system. Whether the state should play an important role in between the central and local authorities is a problem the solution of which depends much upon the traditional and political factors. The local authorities can promote equality of opportunity and enrich national culture in the light of the local

¹ D. R. Davies and F. W. Hosler. *The Challenge of School Membership*. New York, Chartwell House Inc., 1951. pp. 5-6.

environment. Besides, democracy in education implies liberty and freedom and hence the importance of local effort in education.

It should thus be realised that democratic control of public education by the local bodies and specially by the community is a protection against the possible use or misuse of education by the state or federal governments or even by special voluntary interest groups. As Kandel says, "Only through extending opportunities for participation in the administration of education concerned with defining policies to all individuals and groups already mentioned"¹ It is possible to avoid that danger which John Stuart Mill feared so strongly from a state or centrally controlled system of education and which has been exemplified in the modern totalitarian state. In his essay on Liberty Mill wrote nearly a century ago "In general state education is mainly a contrivance for moulding people to be exactly like one another, and as the mould in which it casts them is that which pleases the predominant power in the government.....it establishes a despotism over the mind, leading by natural tendency to one over the body."

Finally, education, whether it is centrally administered or locally, must ultimately aim at the development of the individual — physically, intellectually and spiritually. The greater the decentralization of administration, the better and quicker is the development. The state and the local authorities can do a good deal towards administering the right kind of education to the right kind of pupils through the right kind of teachers. The educative process and everything involved in it cannot be governmentalized. The central authority may at the most furnish guidance and offer suggestions.

EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION. - The administration of education is again divided into two aspects, namely, the external and the internal. The external control of education refers to the influence and even dictation from the powers above. The internal control refers to the actual school administration. While distinguishing between "school administration" and "educational administration", Wahlquist and others hold that "the former is more or less a static term, restricting "education" to buildings and established institutions, whereas the latter is not only a broader term but a more dynamic one shifting the emphasis from the institution to the child. Instead of guiding the pupil through the rigmarole of the traditional school, the new concept of administration is concerned with guiding and directing pupil growth."²

¹ I. L. Kandel *The New Era in Education*. New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955. p. 126.

² J. T. Wahlquist, et. al. *The Administration of Public Education*. New York, The Ronald Press, 1952. p. 7.

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

In Indian context, the external administration of education means governmental control through the Department of Education. By internal control is meant the management of the day-to-day school programme and activities through the head and his assistants. The external administration frames laws and regulations, enforces compulsory attendance, prescribes text-books, frames courses of studies, helps in the construction of buildings and playgrounds, fixes salaries and service conditions of teachers and guides the schools regarding the length of the school year and other problems. As a matter of fact, in other democratic countries the curriculum, the courses of study, methods of instruction, text-books and such other problems are left to be solved by the community and the schools themselves. We should realise that our academic institutions are a part of the community and are expected to give spark and direction to its life. The issues which are live, vital issues in the society should be those on which education is concentrating its resources and its techniques; and what is taught in schools should be in relation to its function as a part of the social fabric. It is utterly futile, for example, to learn a skill without a functioning acquaintance with the economic structure into which this skill and its human practitioners are expected to fit. Only through such understanding can we achieve a new dignity of work and a new dignity of personality. Unfortunately in India it is difficult to know clearly as to what is external and what is internal administration owing to the rigidity, conformity and uniformity on many matters educational.

A sound system of administration should in reality enable the teachers to enjoy the right to participate in the administration of education. In the U.S.A., for example, the administrator, education specialist and the teacher are working together more cooperatively than ever before. In Russia, proposals for legislation are brought annually before the union of teachers while a hierarchy of teachers' councils has been established in Germany. Unfortunately, teachers in India have practically no voice either in administration or in academic problems. The Department of Education prescribes rules, which have to be literally carried out. The head and the management decide the policy without consulting the staff. From the 'democratic point of view, this is 'efficiency' in school administration at its dictatorial level. This is unfortunate. Between the external and the internal type of administration, there must exist a common bond so as to satisfy the ultimate aim of educating the child in the right way.

Financing education is a difficult problem and hence the governmental share in the administration of schools is inevitable. As tax-payers, the American parents take keen interest in the administration of education. But where such conditions do not exist, the government or the state has to shoulder the responsibility of financing education.

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

But a question arises: Does financial help mean administrative control? Should the head of the educational institution and his colleagues be deprived of their fundamental freedom simply because they are receiving financial aid from the government? Administration does not and should not mean domination and dictation. It should only mean guidance, counselling, and participation through actual aid and activities. Unfortunately in India the aided schools are, as it were, under the permanent obligation of the government because they receive financial assistance by way of annual grants. The initiative on the part of the school organisers is killed to such an extent that they have developed the habit of waiting for orders from above. Democracy demands freedom and certainly so in matters educational.

The internal administration, therefore, must be the job of the actual workers in the school. The framing of curricula, prescribing text-books and even administering examinations should be the direct responsibility of the school organisers and managers. After all, the ultimate purpose of educational administration is the all-round development of the individual child in the social atmosphere. Unfortunately our educational administration, today instead of being 'child-centered' is tending towards becoming only 'file-oriented'.

LOCAL AUTHORITIES. — Should education be administered by local authorities or should it be under the control of the government of the state? This has always been a burning problem of educational administration specially in India. There are extreme views and practices in different countries. If there is extreme local control of education in America, there are no local bodies at all in Australia. While the Local Education Authorities in England dominate the entire administration of education, the Soviet educational administration is a state monopoly.

PRIVATE BODIES. — The administration and organisation of education in any country is, truly speaking, a cooperative partnership between the private and the public bodies. Our five-year plans are, for example, divided into private and public sectors so far as the economic development of the country is concerned. So is the case with educational development.

The private bodies of education have been playing a very prominent role in our country. It is not possible for the government to shoulder the entire responsibility of organising education nor is it desirable to do so. Private enterprise of education helps experimentation and allows scope for initiative on the part of those who have a desire and the enthusiasm to do something in the field of education. Too much government control

implies rigidity and uniformity. We notice this 'uniformity in the totalitarian state, where private agencies of education are not allowed to exist.

We have thus in our country various private bodies in charge of education. Different types of managements are organising schools and colleges. We have educational societies and trusts in charge of schools and colleges. There again are the religious missions conducting various types of educational institutions all over the country. These various private bodies have done meritorious services in the field of education and it is well-nigh impossible for the government to deny their important share in the educational endeavour. The rapid progress of education in our country is, to a great extent, due also to the selfless service rendered by these private agencies of education. 'Where there is a will there is a way' goes an old proverb, the significance of which is realised in the private effort in the field of education. Funds are raised for the purpose, people come forward with an ideal of sacrifice and service and thus the progress of education takes place. What is at the bottom is the joy of freedom and creation which every human being cherishes the most.

We have such private bodies of education in almost all the countries where local effort is encouraged. In our country these private bodies are either aided or unaided. An aided institution is one which receives a subsidy from government or from a local or municipal board. Unaided institutions are financed solely from fees, endowments and subscriptions.

But there has to be a limit to this sort of private enterprise in education. In our country, as in the U.S.A. where extreme local effort is encouraged, many problems arise. To put in the words of Van Miller and W.B. Spalding, "The existence of local initiative in the development of programmes of education has resulted in considerable diversity in the offerings of secondary schools. This has been good, for it has led to the development of many new ideas of value for all schools. But it has complicated education. It has meant that there is no common, single pattern of secondary education which is conceded to be good."¹

THE PUBLIC CONTROL OF EDUCATION. — As against private control, we have the governmental control of education. In each state, we have government schools and colleges side by side with the private ones. These government institutions are directly under the state control and have a uniform policy and practice of education. Transfers of teachers

¹ V. Miller and W. B. Spalding. *The Public Administration of American Schools*. New York, World-Book Company, 1952. p. 158.

can take place from school to school and college to college and the pay-scales are uniform throughout

In the Indian context, however, the public bodies of education also include the district and the municipal local boards of education which are not, as a matter of fact, controlled by the state government except through the grants which they annually get. The Reform Report of 1919, for example, declared that there should be as far as possible complete control in local bodies and the largest possible independence for them of outside control. This point has to be specially mentioned because the meaning of 'public control' of education in India has to be properly understood as not necessarily 'government control' of education.

One important point, however, has to be noted and it is that so far as our country is concerned, the courses of study and the standard of achievement expected are uniform in both the private and the state schools and colleges of a particular state. It is because most of the private bodies are aided by the Government so far as finance is concerned and hence a common pattern of curriculum and achievement is expected to be maintained. This helps in achieving common standards of education through common public examinations.

The problem mentioned above by the American writers is, therefore, not likely to arise in our case. The so-called private agencies are in a way semi-government bodies in that they receive the financial aid from the state. The so-called government schools and colleges, on the contrary, have to keep in tune with the private bodies so far as the standards of achievement are concerned.

There is thus a very happy blending of the two types of agencies of education in India. Extremes are avoided with the result that a rapid progress of education can take place. The individual initiative and freedom to experiment in education can be properly channelled owing to the uniform ideals set forth by the government and the private agencies.

The control of education by the Government and the private agencies has, no doubt, been an administrative problem throughout. This problem is one of the fundamental ones, underlying the various systems of educational administration all over the world.

FACTORS DETERMINING THE NATURE OF ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEMS

The educational administration of any country is an evolutionary process in that its growth depends upon a number of factors — historical, cultural, political and social. Let us consider each of them in detail.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. — History plays a very vital role in the make-up of a nation and particularly so in the evolution of its philosophy. The administration of education is a reflection of the philosophy and the history of the nation. The history of the U.S.A. being very recent, it was possible for the people of that country to democratize and decentralize their educational administration. There were no kings and rulers who displayed their domination and despotism just as the tsars of Russia or the kings of England and France did. The Americans could set up their administration with a clean and clear mind. The Russians had to pass through wars, murders and revolutions. India has a long historical past in which there were invasions and even foreign rulers ruling over her. The present educational administration of India is more or less a reflection of the British rule in India.

Administration of education, therefore, cannot be thought of as an isolated subject in many cases. The human mind has the habit of lurking in the past and of pining for the future. It thinks of the present through the past and for the future. No country with a long history can start completely afresh so far its educational administration is concerned. In fact the historical traditions have got to be reflected in it and to some extent the best of them have to be preserved and encouraged.

CULTURAL BACKGROUND. — "It is, in fact, impossible", says Dr I L Kandel, "to understand any educational system and the difference between systems without going behind them to discover the influences that help to shape them. Educational systems, therefore, are relative to their cultural environments. Not only do national systems differ from each other, but within a democracy which encourages decentralization local systems may also differ from each other in certain respects"¹

The statement above gives in brief the importance of cultural background as reflected in the administration of education. Apparently, however, one would ask as to what has educational administration to do with the cultural pattern of a country. But, on deeper thinking, it would be very soon clear that the cultural pattern of a country shapes the developments of the individuals and the societies of that particular country. The pattern is carried on, with changes here and there, from generation to generation. The administrators of education in particular cannot isolate themselves from the cultural past of the country since education and culture always go together—at least they should do so. And what culture can the individual imbibe except that which belongs to his own nation? Hence it is that the administration of education in particular has to keep in close contact with the cultural heritage of the nation and, in fact, has to satisfy the cultural needs of the

same. The educational administration which does nothing to enhance the cultural heritage of the nation is no good administration.

No doubt, important changes are taking place today in the cultural environment with the result that changes in educational patterns are also taking place rapidly. New courses of study and methods of instruction are being introduced and it is for the administrators of education to take into consideration these changes so as to satisfy the needs created by them. And yet these changes, important and essential as they may be, will take place only on the surface the cultural depth remaining constant and undisturbed.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND — A very brief reference has already been made to the influence of political and social background on educational administration in a previous context. Education and politics are intermingled today. The political ideology in almost all the nations is dominating over other fields including that of education. It is doing so to such an extent that in some countries education is openly and directly used as a means to the political ends.

Whether education should be allowed to lose its special value and importance under the domination of politics is really a vital question. Education in ancient India was regarded as a sacred mission and the rulers deemed it their duty to protect the educational institutions known as *ashramas* where deep learning used to be administered. Gradually, however, education came to be regarded as one of the branches of administration and now we have in all the countries what is known as educational administration only as a branch of the political organization. The very aims of education are being framed and policies laid down in the light of the political aims and dogmas. Education, in fact, is being used as an instrument of politics.

Educational administration, as we have said before, has to keep before it the aim of the total development of the individual child. As such, will the domination of a particular political ideology allow such an ideal all-round development of the individual? Freedom is the very soul of education and hence education and its administration must enjoy the freedom to frame aims and ideals and to put them into practice too.

SOCIAL BACKGROUND. — Along with the political factor, the social factor also plays an important part in the development of educational administration. Any educational administration must, after all, satisfy the needs of the society — which again is changing constantly. The administration of education has to take into account these social changes, else it should be static and unsuitable for the changing pattern of the society.

UNIVERSALISM IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: IS IT POSSIBLE?

The discussion in the foregoing pages brings us to ask whether it is possible and necessary to universalize the fundamentals of educational administration. Obviously, it is quite necessary to have a universal concept of administration though all doubts would be expressed about the possibility of its acceptance.

Educational administration is, in fact, a very powerful weapon and a strong instrument to mould the development of individuals. If the nations of the world can boast of being highly developed scientifically and educationally, why should they not be able to achieve common ends through an ideal and efficient administration of education? The educational and cultural development of human beings as human beings is much more important than their exploitation as political beings. A clear and universal definition of 'man' is the need of the day. The purpose of his life has to be very explicitly made clear. Does it become man as man to be at constant war? Should not education prove a powerful agency to overcome the animal in man so to arouse his reasoning and introspecting capacity for sacrificing his narrowness for the universal good?

We cannot, however, afford to ignore the various factors which differentiate one country from the other. We cannot deny the fact that the historical, cultural and political traditions of the nations are fundamentally different and yet today when the human being has made such a rapid scientific progress, can we not expect him to think in terms of a universal philosophy of education and hence that of administration? People there are who have strong and definite views on this problem and they are pessimistic about the prospects of such a universal philosophy and administration of education. Dr. I. L. Kandel on this point says, "In 1888 the German philosopher, Wilhelm Dilthey, discussed the question whether a universally valid educational science is possible. He denied such a possibility and maintained that "the educational ideal of a period and of a people in the richness, and reality of its content is historically conditioned and formed." In 1902 Emile Durkheim, in an inaugural address at the Sorbonne on *Pedagogie et sociologie*, stated that "there cannot be a universal aim in education since it is always adapted to the culture pattern of a community."¹

Such statements, no doubt, are likely to dishearten and lead us to think in pessimistic and negative ways so far as the possibility of universalism in educational administration is concerned. And yet it is always useful and necessary to maintain a hopeful, positive and optimistic view in this matter, if the leading nations of the world honestly desire that peace should prevail and war should disappear from human life. What greater and more

¹ I. L. Kandel *op. cit.* pp. 371-72.

powerful agency than that of education can help achieve peace in its true sense and not in the sense of absence of war only? True education should cultivate the spirit of peace among the people. Is it then not the duty of the administrators of education to see that peace is preached and practised through the administration of education?

All this may be regarded as a hypothetical and utopian idealism specially because the common man today has lost hopes of enjoying a universal peace and understanding. It is futile, according to some thinkers to hope that the leading nations of the world will ever come to a common understanding when they are busy in a cut-throat competition in their mad march towards the Moon and the Mars. And yet a true educationist will not take rest until the highest goal of a universal peace is achieved through the administration of education.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have now reached a stage when we can put in a nut-shell what we have discussed in the foregoing pages. We started our discussion with an attempt to define administration in general and educational administration in particular. This led us to look into the fundamental types underlying the educational administrative systems such as centralization and decentralization, the role of the state and local administration, external and internal administration, and the role of private and public agencies of education. The various factors which determine these types were also discussed. Among these the cultural, political and social factors were the most important. Lastly, we made an attempt to study the possibility of evolving a universal scheme of educational administration so as to ensure peace on the face of this beautiful earth and to justify our existence as true human beings highly cultured and truly progressive.

We are now in a position to draw the following important conclusions from the foregoing discussion of this vital subject:

1. That educational administration is a means and not an end.
2. That there are various types of educational administrative systems.
3. That the administration of education can be the concern of the state or of the private bodies.
4. That there are various factors which ultimately determine the types of educational, administrative systems.
5. That in spite of a variety in the systems there can be and has to be found out a unity of purpose if not that of practice so far as educational administration is concerned. A universal aim of educational administration is necessary.

6 : Finally, it is important to note that educational administration can be and is actually run on different levels in different countries. These levels are

- (1) the federal or the central level,
- (2) the state level,
- (3) the local level, and
- (4) the private agencies

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA AND EDUCATION

DR. D. M. DESAI

THE VARYING ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN EDUCATION—A RETROSPECT

As detailed in the introductory chapter on the background of educational administration in India, the role of the Government of India has varied largely from time to time during the last century and half, following changes in the pattern of political administration of the country. The exclusive responsibility of the Central Government for all education in the country, which marked the period between 1833 and 1870, changed, as a result of the decentralisation policy of Lord Mayo, to minor and occasional interest by Government between 1870 and 1899. But, with Lord Curzon becoming the governor-general of India in 1899, the 'minor' and 'occasional' Central interest in education gave place to deep and sustained interest and intensive educational activities on the part of the Government of India. The Central interest in education continued to show a spurt till 1921, after which it again started dwindling and that too to such an extent that the Hartog Committee deplored it as an unfortunate 'divorce' of the Government of India from education.¹ With the introduction of provincial autonomy by the Government of India Act of 1935 the Central control over education came to be further reduced, but the awakened public opinion and the improved financial position of Government tended again to increase central participation in financing programmes of educational expansion in the country. From 1947 onwards, with the attainment of independence from an alien rule, the Central interest and activities in education have been again showing a remarkable spurt. The keen and increasing federal participation in education has been one of the most significant developments of Indian education during the post-independence era. The National Five-Year Plans of Education are an eloquent testimony of the faith of the Government of India in education as a great investment in man. "Man is eventually more important than machines . . . (and therefore), . . . investment in man is more important than investment in any material projects."² It is gratifying to note that our national development planners realise that education "is the only bulwork of safe-guarding our great experiment in democracy and for ensuring that our efforts to improve the economic conditions of the people

¹ *Hartog Report*, p. 346.

² *The Draft Third Five-Year Plan of Education*. New Delhi, The Ministry of Education, 1960, p. 3.

successful."¹ The National Five-Year Plans of Education have made the Government of India a great pulsating centre of enormous and varied educational activities. Instead of 'exclusive responsibility' and 'bureaucratic stiff control' of the first period, there is now shared responsibility between the Centre and the states for a better deal in education and that too on the basis of mutual consultation and corporate planning. In the place of 'minor' and 'occasional' interest of the third period², there is now keen and sustained interest of the Centre in education. The present federal participation in financing education is unprecedented in the history of education in India. It is not the awakened public opinion and the improved financial position that have increased the participation of the Government of India in education, but the faith of Government itself in education as an investment in man and a keen sense of duty to people are impelling it to its utmost for a better deal in education.

THE EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CENTRAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

At present, the Government of India discharges its functions and responsibilities in education within the framework of the broad principles embodied in the Constitution and the specific Acts passed by the Parliament, through two of its ministries, viz., the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.

The evolution and growth of the Central Ministry of Education has kept pace with the expansion of the educational activities of the Government of India in scope, volume and complexity. Prior to 1901, there was no department of education at the Centre, nor was there a full-time educational adviser to the Government of India. Lord Curzon created in 1901 the post of the director-general of education which could be looked upon as the first nucleus of the present Ministry of Education.³ The director-general of education was primarily responsible for advising the Central Government on all educational matters that came before it. With the growth of educational activities of the Government of India, a Department of Education was established in 1910 and a member in charge of Education portfolio was added to the executive council of the governor-general. The post of the director-general of education was quashed in 1910 and a new post of secretary for education was instituted. In 1915, the post of the director-general of education was revived under a new designation of the educational commissioner. In 1923, the Department of Education lost its independent status when it was amalgamated with the combined Department of Health and Lands. In 1937, when the departments of the Government of India were reshuffled and augmented, education was kept tagged

¹ *Loc. cit.*

² *Supra.* p. 4.

³ Dr. (Mrs.) Madhuri Shah. *Some Problems of Educational Administration in India*. Bombay University, Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, 1951. p. 94.

on to the combined Department of Education, Health and Lands. This position continued till 1945. But in that year when the central cabinet was expanded to accommodate the Muslim League nominees, Education was separated from the other two heads of Health and Lands, and it was made an independent department. It attained the status of a full-fledged Ministry of Education on the attainment of independence in 1947. During the First Five-Year Plan period, with added importance attached to the development of technical education and scientific research, the Ministry was renamed as the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research¹. In 1957, it was functioning through three departments, viz, the Department of Education, the Department of Physical Education and Cultural Activities, and the Department of Technical Education and Scientific Education. This organisation underwent a radical change in February 1958, when the Central Cabinet was reshuffled after the sad demise of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, our first Federal Education Minister. Under the new arrangement, the Ministry of Education was bifurcated into the Ministry of Education (general) and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, and each was put under the charge of a separate Minister of State. This position continues today.

The organisation of two ministries for education in the central secretariat has become a distinguishing feature of Indian administration of education. Neither Great Britain nor France have such separate ministries in charge of two separate ministers. In U S S R, too, there is only one ministry with a minister in charge for the control and administration of higher education including university and technical education.² The Academy of Sciences of the U S S R is directly under the Council of Ministers of the U S S R.³

This latest development in the reorganisation of the Central Ministry of Education reflects the keenness of the Government to harness its administrative machinery to deal effectively with the growing dimensions of both education (general) and of industry (technical and scientific education) and culture.

¹ This happened in April 1957 when the subject 'Scientific Research' was taken from the erstwhile Ministry of Natural Resources and the Scientific Research and transferred to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Scientific Research was abolished and the subject 'Natural Resources' was put under the charge of the newly created Ministry of Steel, Mines and Fuel.

² Elizabeth Moos. *The Educational System of the Soviet Union*. New York, National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, 1950. p. 28.

³ *Trends in Soviet Education*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education & Scientific Research, 1958. p. 2.

THE ORGANISATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND THE MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

GENERAL ORGANISATIONAL PATTERN OF A CENTRAL MINISTRY—In order to get a clear picture of the structural pattern of both the ministries of education, it would be worthwhile to know broadly the organisation of a central ministry.

A ministry is an organisational unit. It consists of a secretary to the Government of India, a joint secretary (where the volume of work exceeds what a secretary can normally be expected to manage), divisional heads, under-secretaries in charge of branches, section officers and subordinate office staff.

A ministry is generally divided into a number of divisions for efficient and quick disposal of work assigned to it. On the same principle of efficient and expeditious disposal of business, a division is sub-divided into at least two branches, and a branch into two or more sections. A division is normally under the charge of a deputy secretary. Similarly, a branch is under the charge of an under-secretary. The section officer has a certain number of clerical staff under him.

The secretary to the Government of India is the administrative head of the ministry and is also the principal adviser to the government 'on all matters of policy and administration within the ministry'. All proposals that involve important policy decisions have to pass through the secretary or joint secretary or both. A joint secretary has normally independent functioning subject to a general control of the secretary.

THE ORGANISATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION. The Ministry of Education is headed by the Minister of Education who is a Minister of State. The Education Secretary is the administrative head of the Ministry and is also the educational adviser to the Government of India in respect of all subjects allotted to the Education Ministry. There are also two joint secretaries and an adviser (Primary Education) to the Government of India.

* For the discharge of its functions and responsibilities, the Ministry of Education is divided into the following nine divisions¹:

1. Administrative Division;
2. Elementary and Basic Education;
3. Secondary Education;

¹ As on 31:3:1961.

4. UNESCO and Higher Education Division;
5. Social Education and Social Welfare Division;
6. Scholarship Division;
7. Physical Education and Recreation Division;
8. Hindi Division; and
9. Research and Publication Division

Besides the above, there is a Plan Co-ordination Unit of the Ministry, whose main function is to co-ordinate the work of the Ministry with regard to central and state educational development schemes under the Second Five-Year Plan. The Ministry of Education has also a unit called 'the Special Reorganisation Unit', whose function is to study the working of the different sections in the Ministry with a view to finding out 'how the work could be reorganised to secure the maximum of efficiency with the minimum of Staff

The Education Secretary exercises indirect supervision and general control over all the divisions of the Ministry, but he also directly supervises the work of some divisions and the work of the central universities. One of the joint secretaries supervises the work of divisions dealing with administration, budget and accounts, and handles the work relating to the UNESCO. The other joint secretary is also in charge of the supervision of the work of some divisions and of the work of the Co-ordination Unit. The Adviser (Primary Education) to the Ministry is also in charge of Research and Publication Division.

Under the Secretary, there are divisional heads who are in most cases of the rank of deputy educational advisers. The divisional heads of some divisions like the Administration Division are also of the rank of deputy secretary. There are assistant educational advisers, education officers and under-secretaries in charge of various branches of a division. The sections of a branch of a division are normally in charge of an education officer or a section officer. They are assisted by assistant education officers and administration officers. It would thus be seen that the Central Secretariat of Education discharges its functions through various divisions, branches, sections and units and through different categories of officers—education secretary, joint secretaries, deputy secretaries, deputy educational advisers, education officers, assistant education officers, under-secretaries, assistant educational advisers, administration officers, section officers, office superintendents and other clerical staff

THE ORGANISATION OF THE MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS. — Like the Ministry of Education, this Ministry is also headed by a Minister of State. Its organisation follows mostly the pattern of the Ministry of Education of which it was a department prior to February 1958. The secretariat staff of the Ministry consists of a secretary (educational adviser), a joint secretary, deputy secretaries, deputy educational advisers, assistant educational advisers, technical officers, special officers, assistant education officers, section officers and other subordinate staff. There is also a Gazetter Unit in the Ministry. For the purposes of organisation, the Ministry is divided into following six divisions:

1. Administration Division,
2. Scientific Research Division (including Scientific Surveys),
3. Technical Division;
4. Cultural Division;
5. External Relation Division, and
6. Cultural Scholarship and Publication Division

The Technical Division assists the Ministry both in the formulation of and execution of its policies and programmes relative to technical education in the country. "The duality of advisory and administrative functions in the same organisation is a characteristic feature of the Ministry that has made for much progress in technical education"¹ This division has also four regional offices, at Calcutta, Bombay, Kanpur and Madras, which work in close association with the state governments and which also serve as the secretariat of the regional committees of the All-India Council for Technical Education.

THE ATTACHED AND SUBORDINATE OFFICES OF THE TWO MINISTRIES — Every Union Ministry has a number of subordinate offices under its administrative control and some ministries have attached offices, through which the activities of the Government of India pertaining to a ministry are conducted. These offices are responsible for providing executive direction required in the implementation of the policies laid down by the ministry to which they are attached. The subordinate offices function more or less as field establishments responsible for the detailed execution of the decisions and programme of Government.²

¹ *Technical Education in India: A Survey of Present Position and Future Needs.* New Delhi, Government of India, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, 1961. p. 4.

² *The Organisation of the Government of India,* Bombay, Asia Publishing House, 1958. p. 32.

The Ministry of Education has at present three attached offices, viz., the Directorate of Extension Programme for Secondary Education, the Central Hindi Directorate and the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate. The Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs has only one attached office which is the Department of Archaeology, Delhi. Some of the important subordiante offices of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs are listed below:

A. Ministry of Education

1. The National Institute of Basic Education;
2. The Central Institute of Education;
3. The Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance;
4. The Central Bureau of Text-book Research;
5. The National Institute of Audio-Visual Education;
6. The National Fundamental Education Centre;¹
7. The Central Institute of English, Hyderabad;
8. The Directorate of the National Discipline Scheme;
9. The Laxmibai College of Physical Education, Gwalior;
10. The Overseas Education Departments located in London, Washington, Bonn and Nairobi (Attached to Diplomatic Missions in the places);
11. The Training Centre for Adult Blind, Dehradun;
12. The Central Braille Press, Dehradun.

B. The Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs:

1. Delhi Polytechnic;
2. The Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur;
3. The Regional Offices of the Ministry in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Kanpur;
4. The National Laboratories;
5. The Geodetic Survey of India;
6. The Survey of India, Dehradun;
7. The Botanical Survey of India, Calcutta;
8. The Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta;
9. The Central Board of Geophysics;
10. The Department of Anthropology, Calcutta;
11. The National Library, Calcutta;
12. The National Archives of India, New Delhi,

¹ The first six institutions have been amalgamated in the 'National Institute of Education.'

13. The National Gallery of Modern Art, Delhi,
14. The National Museum, New Delhi;
15. The Indian War Memorial Museum, Delhi.

AUTONOMOUS BODIES. — Besides the attached offices and subordinate offices, some autonomous bodies are also set up by the Government of India to assist it in the discharge of some of its functions and responsibilities in education. The Central Social Welfare Board is such an autonomous body set up in August 1953. The Parliament has recently passed a legislation creating an autonomous body, the 'National Institute of Education' (NIE). It has started functioning in 1961. Under it, have been placed the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, the Central Institute of Education, the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance, the Central Bureau of Textbook Research, the National Institute of Basic Education, the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education and the National Fundamental Education Centre as departments or wings. Similarly, in the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, there are some autonomous bodies of which mention must be made of the Indian Council for Cultural Relations set up in 1950, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research established in 1942 and the Academies of Sangeet and Natak, Lalit Kala and Sahitya.

The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs have also several important advisory bodies functioning in them. The functions of the advisory bodies would be discussed separately later and those of the autonomous bodies and the attached and subordinate offices would be referred to in the context of the role which the Government of India plays at present in education.

THE MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN EDUCATION

The Seventh Schedule, List I-11 of the Constitution of India has vested the responsibility for education in state governments and the entries 62, 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I and the entry 25 of List III restrict the role of the Government of India to the following:

1. The administration of institutions of national importance such as the National Library, The Indian Museum, the Imperial War Museum, the Victoria Memorial, the Indian War Memorial and any other like institution financed by the Government of India wholly or in part and declared by Parliament by law to be an institution of National importance.
2. The financing and supervision of the Central Universities of Banaras, Aligarh, Delhi and Visva-Bharati.

3. The administration of institutions for scientific or technical education financed by the Government of India wholly or in part and declared by parliament by law to be institutions of national importance.

4. The co-ordination of facilities and determination of standards in respect of higher education, research and scientific and technical education.

5. Sharing responsibility with the State Government and private bodies for free, universal, and compulsory primary education of all children of the age-group 6 to 14 throughout the country.

6. The co-ordination in regard to elementary and secondary education.

7. The administration of the award of scholarships and fellowships.

8. Co-operating with international organisations like UNESCO.

9. Financing, directing and controlling of education in the Union Territories.

It would thus be seen that the role of the Government of India in education is a limited one. It is confined to providing leadership, aiding the efforts of state governments and private agencies in expanding and improving educational facilities in the country, co-ordinating developments in elementary and secondary education, increasing facilities and aiding developments in higher education, laying down and maintaining standards in higher education, research and scientific and technical education, administering the award of scholarships and fellowships, financing and controlling central universities, and central institutions of national importance, providing for improvement and expansion of educational facilities in the area of Union Territories, and taking active measures for the preservation of national culture.

THE ALL-INDIA EDUCATIONAL ADVISORY BODIES

Introduction

There are quite a number of educational advisory bodies of an all-India character, which assist the Government of India appreciably in discharging its educational functions and responsibilities. The main purpose in setting up these bodies has always been to associate the best minds in the country, experienced educationists and professional workers as well as state government officials in formulating an all-India policy in various branches of Indian education and utilise their expert knowledge in the interest of education of the country. These advisory bodies also help the Government of India in co-ordinating educational facilities and developmental needs of different territories of the country, and thus reducing the disparity in educational opportunities available in the country. They also go a long way in democratising educational administration of the country. The advisory

bodies have also served as an anvil to test the wisdom of government policies and decisions. Some of these bodies are intimately connected with determining and maintaining standard in higher education, research and scientific education. We will briefly consider here the work of some of these bodies: (a) attached to the Ministry of Education, and (b) assisting the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.

Ministry of Education

THE CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD OF EDUCATION. — This is the oldest advisory body of an all-India category. It was first organised in 1920 with a view to assisting the provincial governments with expert advice on their educational problems. The Board was, however, abolished in 1923¹ on the recommendations of the Inchcape Retrenchment Committee. The scrapping of the Board was, severely criticised by the Hartog Committee, as a result of whose recommendations it was revived in 1935.

The Union Minister of Education is the chairman of the Board and the Education Secretary acts as its secretary. The Parliament, state governments, Inter-University Board, University Grants Commission, the Indian Council for Technical Education, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the All-India Council for Secondary Education, the All-India Council for Elementary Education and such other bodies are represented on it. The main functions of the Board are two:

1. To advise on any educational question which may be referred to it by the Government of India or by any state government, and

2. To call for information and advice regarding educational developments of special interest or value to India; to examine this information and circulate it with recommendations to the Government of India and to the state governments

The Board functions through four of its standing committees which are: the Primary and Basic Education Committee, the Social Education Committee, the Secondary Education Committee and the Higher Education Committee. There is also a General Purpose Committee.

The Board meets once a year to discuss the important educational problems before the country and offers suggestions and provides directions on them. The Board's decisions are not binding upon state governments, as they are in the form of advice and guidance. However, as the state education ministers and directors of education are the members of the Board and as they participate in its deliberations and are thus contributors to its decisions. The state governments thus respect the Board's decisions and try to implement them.

¹ *The Organisation of the Government of India, op. cit.*, p 260.

Thus, the Central Advisory Board of Education serves the Government of India in discharging its functions of providing leadership in educational matters to state governments, and in co-ordinating their schemes of expansion and improvement of education.

THE UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION. — The setting-up of the University Grants Commission is a very significant and important development in Indian education in the post-independence era. The University Grants Commission was started at first as an advisory committee in 1945 in pursuance of the recommendations of the Sargent Report. No funds were placed at its disposal. Its function was merely to make recommendations for grants to be paid to various universities to the Ministry of Education which in turn 'transmitted the case to the Finance Ministry which judged for itself each recommendation for a grant recommended by the Committee'. This position was disapproved by the Radhakrishnan University Education Commission, and they recommended the establishment of a university grants commission with funds of its own. As a result of the recommendations, the University Grants Commission was set up in 1953, "for the purpose of allocation and disbursement of grants to universities as well as for the purpose of co-ordination and maintenance of standards of universities in India." The University Grants Commission became a statutory body under the University Grants Commission Act, 1956 of the Parliament.

The UGC consists of nine members appointed by Government of India of which not more than three are from the vice-chancellors of universities, two are officers representing government and the remaining are from among reputed educationists and persons of high academic distinctions. The chairman is a non-official person nominated by Government.

The Commission is the body through which the Government of India discharges its constitutional functions of promotion and co-ordinating university education in the country and determining and maintaining standards of teaching, examining and research in universities. To perform these functions, the Commission is empowered by the Act to inquire into the financial needs of universities and allocate and disburse out of its funds grants for the maintenance and development of such universities or for any other general or specified purpose.¹ While making any grant to any university the Commission is enjoined to give due consideration to the development of the university concerned, its financial needs, the standard attained by it and the national purposes which it may serve. It is within the powers of the Commission to recommend to any university in India the measures necessary for the improvement of university education and advise it upon the action to be taken for the

¹ *The University Grants Commission Act, 1956 (No. III of 1956), Section 12.*

purpose of implementing such recommendation. The Commission is also empowered to advise the Government of India or any state government on the allocation of any grants to universities for any general or specified purpose out of the consolidated fund of India or the consolidated fund of the state as the case may be. Its advice is also available for the establishment of a new university or on proposals connected with expansion of the existing activities of any university.

The Commission has been able to give in recent years a new direction and set a pace for the qualitative development of higher education in the country. It has been able to introduce the three-year degree course in most of the universities in India, a remarkable achievement, in view of the fact that the problem has been a live issue for over forty years without yielding satisfactory results. It has succeeded well with quite a number of universities in respect of the introduction of General Education in the university curriculum. It has taken effective steps to revise the scales of pay of university teachers, to better equip the laboratories and libraries of universities and colleges, to construct university hostels and staff quarters, to determine and maintain standards in higher education, and to co-ordinate and aid development in university education and research. Its recent recommendations regarding restricting admissions to universities and limiting them to students who have talent and aptitude for higher education, and regarding medium of instruction in universities and examination reform are being given weighty consideration at all levels.

THE ALL-INDIA COUNCIL FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The Council was set up by a resolution of Government of India in 1955 to serve as an expert body to deal with the problems connected with the programme for the improvement of secondary education in the country. It consisted of 22 members with the Educational Adviser to the Government of India as its chairman. The functions assigned to the Council were advisory as well as executive. For instance, it was to serve as an expert body to advise the states and the Government of India about the improvement and expansion of secondary education in all its phases, examine and appraise proposals in this behalf referred to it by the Government of India and the state governments and assist them in the implementation of the approved programmes. The Council was also to initiate proposals for the improvement of secondary education in the light of the experience gained and within the ambit of the decisions taken by the Government of India from time to time. The Government of India put at the disposal of the Council such funds as were required for the implementation of its approved programme of activities.

The Council functioned in this capacity from 1955 to 1958. But then in 1958, its executive functions were transferred to the Directorate of Extension Programmes for

Secondary Education which was set up by the Government of India for the purpose. It was reconstituted in 1958 and only its advisory functions were retained. This was rather unfortunate, as the Council was doing an extremely useful job in reconstructing secondary education in the country.¹ Even the Second Lok Sabha's Estimates Committee on Secondary Education for the year 1957-58 recommended that "the All-India Council for Secondary Education should be reconstituted as an autonomous corporate body on the line of the All-India Council of Agricultural Research."²

The reconstituted Council has representatives from the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance and one member nominated by each of the following bodies: the All-India Council for Technical Education, the University Grants Commission, the All-India Council for Elementary Education, the All-India Federation of Educational Associations, the Association of Principals of Training Colleges and a representative of each of the fifteen state governments nominated by the Government of India.

THE ALL-INDIA COUNCIL FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. — This Council was set up by a resolution dated 17th June, 1957 of the then Ministry of Education and Scientific Research with a view to accelerating the pace of expansion of universal, compulsory and free primary education of children in the age-group of 6-14 in fulfilment of the directive principles embodied in *Article 45* of the Constitution of India. All the state governments, the Central Advisory Board, the All-India Council for Secondary Education, Training Colleges, the Ministry of Education, educationists connected with the fields of basic education, girls' education and education of the backward classes, are represented on the Council. The Education Secretary to the Government of India is the chairman of the Council. The functions of the Council are:—

1. to advise the Government of India, the state governments and the local bodies on all matters relating to elementary education;
2. to prepare programmes for the early implementation of *Article 45* of the Constitution of India and to revise them as and when necessary;
3. to prepare, or to have prepared, detailed programmes for the expansion and improvement of elementary education in each State;
4. to organise or assist in organising research in the administrative, financial and pedagogic problems of elementary education and to publish the results thereof;
5. to produce or assist in the production of literature which would help the officers of the Education Department and teachers to improve the quality of elementary education and to enforce compulsory attendance;

¹ *A Venture of Faith. A Review of the Activities of the All-India Council for Secondary Education, 1955-58.* p. 30.

² Estimates Committee. *Report on Secondary Education.* Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat 1958. p. 14.

6. to review, from time to time, the progress made in the field of elementary education, and especially in implementing the directive of Article 45 of the Constitution, and to make such recommendations thereon as may be deemed necessary;

7. to collect data on problems of elementary education, to conduct sample surveys, to undertake special investigations, and to carry out all such fact finding enquiries as may be deemed necessary from time to time; and

8. generally to advise on all such matters as may be deemed necessary to provide proper guidance, leadership and coordination for the improvement and expansion of elementary education.¹

The Council is authorised not only to examine and appraise proposals referred to it by the Union and state governments, but also to initiate proposals for the development of elementary education.

In light of the implementation of the directive contained in Article 45, the Council has a very vital job to perform. It has also to assist effectively the Government of India in discharging its role of providing guidance and leadership to state governments and local bodies in the field of basic education and elementary education and ensure the essential coordination for the improvement and expansion of primary education.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION. — In pursuance of the recommendations of the Shrimali Committee on Rural Higher Education, 1954, the National Council for Rural Higher Education was set up in 1956.² The Council, among other things, is to serve as an expert body to advise the Central and state governments about the improvement and expansion of rural education in all its aspects and to act as a co-ordinating agency among the rural higher educational institutions. It has to initiate schemes for the development and maintenance of standards of higher education in rural areas and encourage research in problems relating to rural education in all its aspects. It will also advise the Government of India on grants to be made to institutions participating in the rural development schemes.

India has accepted as its ultimate objective the ushering in of a socialistic pattern of society. Such an objective necessitates, in the first instance, eliminating the tragic disparity in educational facilities available in urban and rural areas. The National Council for Rural Higher Education is expected to play an effective role in assisting the Government of India

¹ Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. *Resolution No. F. 37-10/56, B. 5., Dated 17th June 1957.*

² Committee on Rural Higher Education in India. *Rural Institutes*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1956. p. 50.

in evolving a suitable pattern of education for the rural people which would help in reducing the existing gulf between education in urban areas and rural areas, both qualitatively and quantitatively.

THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION. — The Board was set up by the Ministry of Education in 1953 on the recommendations of the All-India Conference on Audio-Visual Education held in 1951. The Board's principal function lies in rendering expert advice to the Government of India on the development of audio-visual education in the country. Its other functions include, among other things, the production of audio-visual material, promotion of the training of teachers in the proper selection, production, application and use of audio-visual aids, publication and dissemination of useful information regarding audio-visual education in the country and examination of the work done in this field by the Centre and the state governments and promotion of further development.¹ The Board consists of a chairman, a secretary and 21 members. The chairman is nominated by the Ministry of Education from amongst the officers of the Ministry. All members of the Board are also nominees of the Union Ministry for Education.

THE CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION. — This Board was first established by the Ministry of Education in 1950 but was held in abeyance on account of financial stringency. It was revived in 1952 and has been functioning since then. The Board consists of the principals of colleges of physical education recognised by the Government of India, one representative of the Inter-University Board, one representative from an all-India organisation working in the field of physical education and recreation, one representative of the All-India Council of Sports, a woman specialist in physical education and four members nominated by the Government of India. Both the chairman and the secretary of the Board are also nominees of the Government of India.

The Board serves as an expert body to advise the Government of India on all matters relating to physical education and recreation, particularly on the question of improvement and coordination of standards of training in different institutions of physical education and recreation and to make suggestions for achieving these objectives. The Board also advises the Government of India on matters concerning financial and other assistance to be given to institutions and organisations in the field. One important function that is also performed by the Board is to act as a coordinating agency among the institutions and organisations of physical education and recreation.

¹ Ministry of Education. *Resolution No. F. 19/3/53-D. 3 of 1953.*

Besides the advisory bodies described in this section, there are also some other bodies of all-India character that assist the Ministry of Education in discharging its functions in their specific fields. Among such bodies, mention must be made of the All-India Council of Sports which advises the Government of India in all matters concerning sports and games; including financial and other assistance to sport organisations, and the National Advisory Council for the Education of the Handicapped which advises and assists the Government of India in coordinating activities in the field, formulating new schemes and serving as a liaison between government and voluntary organisations in the field.

Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs

THE ALL-INDIA COUNCIL FOR TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — The Council was set up as a result of the recommendations of the Sarkar Committee, which stressed the need for planning technical education at the higher stages on an all-India basis in the light of the developmental needs of industries in the post-war period. "To stimulate, co-ordinate and control the provision of the educational facilities which such a development as well as the existing industry will need, there must be an all-India body in supreme charge." The Government of India accordingly established the All-India Council for Technical Education by their Resolution dated 30th November 1945. The Council is presided over by the Minister of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs is its secretariat.

The task of the Council has been to survey the needs of the country as a whole for higher technical education, with special reference to the five year plan needs, to advise in what areas technical institutions should be established, for what branches of technology each should be provided and upto what standards they should operate, to assist financially state governments, universities and other agencies in the establishment of technical institutions, to watch over the progress of technical education and to ensure the maintenance of high standards.

To enable the Council to discharge such functions, it is made representative of all the main interests concerned with technical education. The related ministries and departments of the Government of India, state governments, the Central Advisory Board of Education, the Inter-University Board, the Association of Principals of Technical Institutions in India, professional and learned societies, labour, industry and commerce bodies, and the Parliament are all represented on it.

The Council controls today the policy in technical education generally and deals with all technical institutions above the high school stage except the technological depart-

ments of universities. For the purpose of determining and maintaining standards in higher technical education, the Council has appointed boards of studies in engineering and metallurgy, chemical engineering and chemical technology, architecture and regional planning, applied art, commerce and management. The Council has also appointed four regional committees,¹ one each for the Eastern, Western, Southern and Northern Regions "to survey the facilities in those regions, determine regional needs in consultation with the state governments concerned, foster liaison between the industry and technical institutions and assist and advise on the desirable and coordinated development in the respective regions."² There is also a coordinating committee to coordinate the activities of the regional committees of the Council and to act as its executive organ. The University Grants Commission acts on the advice of the Council in the matters of technical and engineering institutions.

Ever since its establishment in 1945, the Council has been doing extremely useful and effective work in the advancement and improvement of technical education in the country. It has eminently succeeded in pushing forward with the utmost speed and determination the programme of higher technical education and research to meet with the growing needs of the reconstruction and development of industries in India. Thus the Council with its co-ordinating committee, four regional committees and seven boards of technical studies has been playing an effective force in vitalising technical education in the country.

OTHER ADVISORY BODIES. — The All-India Council for Technical Education is thus a very important advisory body of the Ministry of the Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. The other advisory bodies attached to the Ministry are: the Central Advisory Board on Museums, the Central Advisory Board on Anthropology, the Central Advisory Board on Archaeology, and the Art Purchase Committee. The Central Advisory Board on Museums advises the Government of India in matters relating to the organisation and development of museums in the country. The Central Advisory Boards on Anthropology and Archaeology advise the government in their respective fields. The services of the

¹ These regional committees deal with the following areas:

- (1) *Northern Regional Committee*: Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Delhi, and Uttar Pradesh;
- (2) *Eastern Regional Committee*: Assam, Manipur, Tripura, West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Andaman and Nicobar Islands;
- (3) *Western Regional Committee*: Gujarat, Maharashtra, and Madhya Pradesh;
- (4) *Southern Regional Committee*: Mysore, Madras, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Pondichery, Laccadive, Minicoy and Aminidevi Islands.

² *The Organisation of the Government of India. op. cit.* pp. 277-78.

³ Estimates Committee. *Technical Education, Part II*. Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. p. 28.

Art Purchase Committee are utilised by the Government for guidance in acquiring and purchasing art objects 'worthy of being preserved by the nation in the National Museum and the National Gallery of Modern Art'. ✓ ✓

Conclusion

The areas and nature of work of the all India advisory bodies attached to both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs detailed in this section show how largely and widely the Government of India is associating non-official expert opinion in shaping its policy and plans on education and implementing its schemes and programmes. Close association of non-official educational experts, as well as the representatives of the state departments of education and the semi-government organisations with the formulation and execution of the programme of educational expansion and improvement is a measure worthy of a country committed to the ideals of democracy. The remarkable achievements of the Government of India in education during the fourteen years of freedom owe not a little to the excellent work that these advisory bodies have been doing. Credit should also be given to the Government of India for making the fullest use of the advice tendered by these expert bodies and acting upon them. In this respect, the association of the Government of India with its advisory bodies is more democratic and constructive than the association of many of the state governments with their advisory committees, councils and boards whose advices are more ignored than followed. However, the tendency in the Central Secretariat of Education to exercise rigid control over some of the schemes and programmes of these advisory bodies is to be regretted. Many good schemes are made somewhat innocuous, if not virtually killed, by the bureaucratic and unimaginative approach of the ministries. Most of the advisory boards set up by the ministries do not function by themselves but through the officials of the ministries. It is now time that at least some of the important advisory bodies have non-official secretaries who can hold the meetings of the bodies more frequently so as to achieve the objective for which they were set up. It is also high time to give statutory status to bodies like the All-India Council for Technical Education and the National Council for Rural Higher Education in order to accelerate the pace of development in technical and rural education respectively, which are the vital needs of the day. The setting up of an all-India advisory council for pre-primary education can no longer be delayed without further deterioration of standards in early childhood education. There is also a vital need for setting up a national board for teacher education for expanding and improving facilities for and working out better practices in the pre-service and in-service education of teachers. The effectiveness of the central schemes and programmes in education could be increased considerably if some of the important advisory boards are made autonomous, with freedom from bureaucratic

curbs and red tapism. But then there seems to linger a strong and strange fear among the official quarters at the Centre that the state governments would not cooperate expeditiously and effectively if the all-India councils and boards are made autonomous. But that sort of thinking involves a vicious circle which should be broken up boldly.

The present and the preceding sections were devoted to the description and discussion of the autonomous and advisory bodies of all-India character and therein an attempt was made to indicate the major functions and responsibilities in education of the Government of India. Against this background of the functions and activities of the all-India bodies, it would be now easier to focus some of the existing major educational activities of the Central Government. In case of fields of central participation where separate chapters are provided in this volume, the treatment will be either general or limited to the discussion of such areas or issues that would streamline the educational role of the Government of India, and give it a sharp focus. A comparative approach will also be made by way of appraisal of the central role in education.

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN UNION TERRITORIES

Under Article 239 of Part VIII of the Constitution of India, the President of the Indian Union has been invested with the responsibility of administering the Union Territories acting, to such an extent as he thinks fit, through an administrator to be appointed by him. Article 240 further specifies the power of the President to make regulations for the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, as well as the Laccadive, Minicoy and the Aminidivi Islands for their 'peace, progress and good government'. The Constitution of India has thus made the Union Government responsible for the administration of education in Union Territories, which include, besides the islands of Andaman, Nicobar, Laccadive, Minicoy and Aminidivi, the territories of Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura, NEFA and Pondicherry. In the areas of Union Territories, the Central Government performs all duties in respect of the provision and development of educational facilities in the same way as the fifteen state governments do in their respective territories. This it does in addition to its all-India functions in education.

In 1956-57, the latest year for which educational statistics are available, the federal participation in financing education in Union Territories ranged from 100 per cent in Laccadive, Minicoy and Aminidivi Islands and NEFA to 68.2 per cent in Delhi. In other territories of Himachal Pradesh, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Tripura, Pondicherry and Manipur it was respectively 92.1, 91.3, 90.7, 89.4 and 68.4 per cents, the remaining expenditure coming from contributions from fees, endowments and other sources.

In 1956-57, on an average, for every 500 people there was one educational institution in Manipur and Tripura, one for every 700 in Andaman and Nicobar Islands, and in NEFA one institution catered for about 4,500 people.¹ Delhi fell in the range of 1,000-1,500. Two Union Territories as against one state provided facilities for more than 80 per cent of the children of the age-group of 6-11; three Union Territories as against six states did it for 60 to 80 per cent and one Union Territory could provide for less than 20 per cent. As regards school facilities for the age-group of 6-14, one Union Territory topped the list with its provision for more than 50 per cent children. With regard to the age-group 14-17, two Union Territories as against two states provided facilities for 15 to 25 per cent of children.

How a Union Territory can derive best advantages from the federal responsibility for its development is best exemplified by the remarkable achievements in education by the Delhi State. In 1956-57, the annual cost of educating a pupil in an arts and science college in states of Bombay, Madras, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Kerala and West Bengal was respectively Rs. 282.4, Rs. 261.0, Rs. 257.2, Rs. 239.8, Rs. 229.5, Rs. 205.1 and Rs. 156.8, while it was as high as Rs. 380.3 in Delhi. Even in the field of secondary education, the students in Delhi had a better deal. The annual cost of secondary schooling per pupil was in Uttar Pradesh Rs. 80.2, West Bengal Rs. 78.1, Andhra Pradesh Rs. 71.3, Madras Rs. 66.8, Bombay Rs. 58.3 and Kerala Rs. 41.9, in Delhi it was Rs. 95.6. Even in primary schooling, the children of primary schools in Delhi Administration received better education inasmuch as the average annual cost per pupil in Delhi was Rs. 67.3 while in other states it ranged from Rs. 13.9 in Assam to Rs. 30.4 in Bombay State. While in other states the average annual cost *per capita* of population did not go beyond Rs. 8.2, it was as high as Rs. 29.1 in the Delhi territory. Even in respect of staffing primary and secondary schools with trained teachers, Delhi stands shoulder high over other states. In primary schools, the percentage of trained teachers in Delhi was in 1956-57 as high as 99.9 per cent. Kerala and Madras with their respective percentages of 92.8 and 92.4 could come close to Delhi, but states like West Bengal (35.4 p.c.), Madhya Pradesh (30.4), Mysore (46.1), and Bombay (47.5) were far behind it. Even in case of trained secondary teachers, Delhi topped the list with 92.9 per cent; the states of Madras (88.5 p.c.), Andhra Pradesh (77.4), Kerala (78.0), Punjab (77.8), Uttar Pradesh (68.1) and West Bengal (27.3 p.c.) respectively were next to it in order. The analysis of educational development in Delhi and other Indian states could be further expanded on similar lines to show how federal direct participation in financing education can benefit a Union Territory. The other Union Territories have also benefited very much from the bountiful federal financing of education.

¹ *Education in India. A Graphic Representation*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1959. p. 5.

A brief comparison of the educational activities of the Government of India in the Centrally Administered Areas with similar activities of some democratic countries of the West would show how well our government plays its role in this important field of federal activities. In the United States of America, the Federal Government supports school districts affected by federal ownership of property and by increased enrolments arising from federal activities¹. The Federal Government allocates funds to such school districts towards current operating expenses and building construction cost. The American Congress is responsible for financing educational activities in the District of Columbia. In 1956-57, 11.6 per cent of expenditure for public education in the district of federal jurisdiction came from federal appropriation². Thus the Government of United States of America and of India are discharging a vital function in respect of providing educational facilities in the Centrally Administered Areas.

The role of the Canadian Government³ in respect of education in the Centrally Administered Areas follows that of the U.S.A. Government and the Government of India. The Federal Government of Australia has no central department of education with the result that it discharges its functions in respect of Centrally Administered Areas through some of the state departments of education by allocating funds to them for this purpose. In short, it might be observed that the Government of India is playing as useful and effective role in the Centrally Administered Areas as the governments of U.S.A., Canada and Australia, but it has a wider area of operation, and proportionately larger financial burden to bear with its comparatively limited financial resources and in view of its larger and expanding population.

THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN RESPECT OF CENTRAL UNIVERSITIES

The list I(63) of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution has made the Government of India responsible for the maintenance and development of Banaras, Aligarh and the Delhi universities and 'any other institution declared by Parliament by law to be an institution of national importance'. The Visva-Bharati was declared to be an institution of national importance in May 1951, and it became a central university under the Act XXIX of 1951 of the Indian Parliament. The Central Ministry of Education is responsible for the maintenance and development of these four central universities.

¹ John K. Norton "Federal Relations in Education," *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*. Third Edition, 1960. p. 524.

² *Ibid* p. 527.

³ *European Policies of Financing Educational Institutions* p. 125.

The University Grants Commission allocates and disburses to these universities the maintenance and development grants on behalf of the Central Government. A reviewing committee, appointed by the UGC, fixes annual block grants to be paid to these universities for maintenance purpose for a period of five years. Each of the central universities has a whole-time officer drawn from the Indian Audit Department who works as an internal auditor. The Reviewing Committee appointed by the UGC in 1954 recommended that each of the central universities should have a representative of the UGC to enable it to maintain very effective coordination with the central ministries.

In recent years, the Central Government has become more vigilant about the administration of central universities. The Union President in his capacity as a visitor to the central universities has recently taken some strong steps to purify the administration of Aligarh and Banaras universities and the Ministry of Education also reacted firmly and effectively to some of the alleged ill-practices.

Again, a feeling is also gathering strength in the country that these universities should serve not only the regional interests but the national interests also. "They should specialise in certain specific lines by imparting a very high type of education so that their names may be associated with the highest type of education in the country."¹ A plea is also being made that the four central universities being all situated in the Northern and Eastern zones of the country, the Government of India should take early steps to set up some central universities in both the Southern and Western zones also. A recommendation to this effect was also made by the Lok Sabha's Estimates Committee in 1958.² In fact some time back a move was made by the Government of India to make the Osmania University of Hyderabad a central university, but it had to be given up as the state government of Andhra Pradesh could not agree to such a proposal.

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA AND THE CONSTITUTIONAL DIRECTIVE ON UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

A COMMON MISAPREHENSION ON THE CONSTITUTIONAL DIRECTIVE. — The Article 45 of Part IV of the Constitution enjoins that the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. The word 'State' in this Constitutional directive is some times wrongly interpreted to mean 'the State Government', as education is a state subject under the Constitution. But if the Article 45 is read with Article 12 and 36 of the Part III, it would be evident that the word 'State' used

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 53.

² Estimates Committee. *University and Rural Higher Education*. Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. p. 53.

in Article 45 "includes the Government and the Parliament of India, and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India." The connotation and implication of Article 45 is that in a vast country like India where over 436 million people live (increasing at the rate of about two per cent a year), the task for providing universal, free and compulsory primary education to 75 million children¹ of the age-group of 6-14 is of such bewildering magnitude and complexity that it must be attempted jointly by the central, state, local and even all the 'other' authorities in India. Thus the attainment of the ultimate goal of universal, free and compulsory education is a cooperative venture involving responsibility of governments at all levels.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR MAINTAINING A COMPARABLE STANDARD OF SOCIAL SERVICES IN ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY — Both the First and the Second Finance Commissions appointed by the Government of India have unequivocally stated that it was one of the major responsibilities of the Governments of India to maintain a comparable standard of social services in all parts of the country. It needs no argument to convince any one that the provision of universal, free and compulsory education is a social service of fundamental importance and significance in democracy like ours. A striking inequality of educational facilities prevails in states in respect of primary education. For instance, the number of children in the age group of 6-11 out of schools is the lowest in Kerala (1.68 lakhs children) and the highest in Uttar Pradesh (70.56 lakhs children). It ranges from 1 lakh to 5 lakhs in Kerala and Jammu & Kashmir, between 5 lakhs and 15 lakhs in Assam, Orissa, Punjab and West Bengal, between 15 lakhs and 25 lakhs in Mysore, Madras, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan and between 30 lakhs and 35 lakhs in Bombay and Bihar. The number of additional schools required to reach the target of universal education also varies immensely from state to state. The Punjab for instance, needs 1,497 schools, but the Uttar Pradesh requires as many as 33,469. The less developed states—Bihar (10,910), Jammu & Kashmir (941), Madhya Pradesh (14,894), Orissa (6,338), Rajasthan (8,840) and Uttar Pradesh (33,469)—need a total number of 75,392 schools or about 73 per cent of the total number of schools required for the country as a whole. More and varied statistics could be given to show that the six less developed states have a larger responsibility in reaching the national goal of universal education and they have poorer resources. These less developed states have 44 per cent of the total population of the country, but they have 73 per cent of school-less villages in the Union² and 60 per cent of the non-attending children. The striking inequality of educational opportunity prevailing from state to state

¹ *National Draft, Third Five Year Plan on Education*. p. 31.

² *A Brochure on Educational Survey of India*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education 1959. Chapter V.

makes it abundantly clear that the Government of India shall have to allocate funds to states on the basis of the magnitude of their responsibility for universal education and their educational and economic sources.¹

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY OF INDIA — The fulfilment of the Constitutional directive on universal, free and compulsory primary education depends, among others, on the provision of schools by government as near the house of the child as possible. In the past, schools were not always opened on the consideration of the educational needs of an area. "Local and political pressures have often been determining factors in deciding the matter; instead of the actual educational needs of the different regions and areas. Thus there are many instances where, on the one hand, there are large areas without any schools at all."² In order that the nation reaches its goal of universal education for all children till they complete the age of 14 years, it is imperative to correct such uneven distribution of schools and decide the location of the new schools to be opened in a planned way. The Central Advisory Board of Education recommended in 1956 to the Government of India to undertake an educational survey country wide. The Government commenced this colossal, complex and very difficult task in collaboration with the state governments in November 1957 and completed it in a record period of less than two years. The survey is unique in its achievements, inasmuch as it has been able to identify and enumerate every distinct habitation, enumerate the existing primary schools (and also middle and high schools) and the habitations served by them, and above all plan school areas for each primary and also middle and high school "in a rational manner so as to derive the maximum benefit with the minimum of additional outlay from the existing schools and those to be opened or enlarged in future." This activity on the part of the Government of India would go a long way in enabling the country to plan effectively for reaching the Constitutional target in universal education. It has also placed the country on line with progressive countries like the U.S.A. One of the important activities of whose Office of Education relates to periodical national surveys on education.

DRAFT MODEL LEGISLATION FOR COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA — Evolving a simple but effective machinery for the enforcement of compulsory primary education is a very vital step in reaching the goal of universal education. Most of the laws on compulsory primary education were passed between 1918 and 1930 when the state governments had hardly any real experience of the problems that beset the enforcement of such pieces of legislation, with the result that the state acts on compulsory education have been

¹ *Infra.* Ch. XIII.

² K. G. Saiyidain. Foreword to '*A Brochure on the Educational Survey of India.*' op. cit.

revealing many weaknesses in actual working. These acts being mostly based on the Bombay Act (the Patel Act of 1918) which in turn was based on Gokhale's Elementary Bill of 1911 (which followed England's Elementary Acts of 1870 and 1876 and the Irish Education Act of 1892) need very largely to be modernised in light of the accumulated experiences in working of these acts. The need for a model legislation on compulsory primary education for India was suggested by this author in his doctoral thesis 'Universal, Free and Compulsory Primary Education in India' in 1951 which also included broad suggestions for a model law on compulsory education.¹ The authors of the UNESCO Brochure 'Compulsory Primary Education in India' also suggested in 1952 the lines on which a model legislation on compulsory education should be prepared.² This trend was subsequently taken up by the Union Ministry of Education which has recently prepared a model law on compulsory primary education "which could be adopted — with such amendments as may be necessitated by local conditions — by all the State Governments." This model bill (along with the set of model rules) will go down in the history of education in India as an act of constructive leadership of the Government of India in the field of education. It would also be reckoned as a great step towards meeting the Constitutional directive on universal primary education.

THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN THE RECONSTRUCTION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education in India was described by the late Federal Minister for Education, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, as the 'weakest link' in Indian education. The Secondary Education Commission that reported in 1952-53 also pointed out a number of shortcomings of the system of secondary education functioning in the country as a whole. Realising the social importance of secondary education and its role in the expanding economy of an 'increasingly self-conscious democracy', the Government of India has applied its educational machinery with great earnestness to reconstruct secondary education on the lines of the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission.

One very important step the Government of India has taken is to redefine the objectives of secondary education and effect consequential modifications of the existing pattern. The remodelling of secondary education is also an essential pre-requisite for bringing about the reconstruction of university education. The pattern of education recommended by the Commission and modified by the Central Advisory Board of Education consists of an

¹ D. M. Desai. *Compulsory Primary Education in India*. Bombay University, Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, 1951, Vol. II, pp. 1,060-1,102.

² K. G., Saiyidain, J. P., Naik, and S. Abid Husain. *Compulsory Education in India*. Paris, UNESCO, 1952. Appendix XI.

eight years of integrated primary (basic) education, three years of higher secondary education and three years of university education leading to the first degree. The Government of India has been trying to effect this reorganised pattern of education through the All-India Council for Secondary Education during 1955-58 and since 1958 through its Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education at the secondary stage, and through the University Grants Commission at the university stage. Linked up with its programme of the remodelling of the pattern of education is its programme of the upgrading of high schools into higher secondary schools and the diversification of the curriculum through the establishment of multipurpose schools. During the two first plan periods, the number of higher secondary schools could be raised from 47 (1950-51) to 1,484 (1958-59) and the number of the multipurpose schools from 374 in 1955-56 to 1,329 in 1958-59.

Both the University Education Commission (1948-49) and the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) have commented very strongly on the inadequacies and shortcomings of the examinations as they are functioning in secondary schools and universities. The Government of India has worked out, through the former All-India Council for Secondary Education, a programme of action for the reform in examination. An examination unit was set up in 1958 in the All-India Council for Secondary Education (now the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education) to implement the Council's programme of action.

Another important recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission also related to the organisation of in-service education of teachers. With the assistance of the Ford Foundation and the T.C.M., the Government of India has been able to set up 54 Departments of Extension Services attached to some secondary teachers' colleges in the country. The activities of these Extension Centres have played a vital role in equipping the teacher to play his part in the reconstruction of secondary education.

The Union Ministry of Education has, besides the steps for reconstruction of secondary education referred to above, formulated a number of schemes to be liberally aided by the Centre to accelerate the pace of the planned reconstruction. These include schemes on the improvement of teaching in existing schools — particularly for improving the teaching of science, social studies and of crafts, the improvement of school libraries, the introduction of craft in middle schools, the training of teachers, particularly for crafts and practical subjects.

It is claimed by the Union Ministry of Education that its role in the field of the reconstruction of secondary education is mainly advisory. "The Ministry advised the states in all

matters pertaining to secondary education, sanctioned grants to the state governments for its development and co-ordinated the various activities by pooling the thoughts and ideas. Further, the Ministry conducted experiments and collected information from abroad and processed the advice or assistance thus received.”¹ This is partially true inasmuch as the decisions taken by the Government of India on policy making measures are almost binding on state governments, and with conditions attached to most of the developmental grants given by the Centre to the state governments, the role of the Government of India in education has become more assertive rather than merely advisory, and indirectly some of its major decisions on the nature, organisation and the pace of developments have become almost binding on state governments. This may not be true in all cases, but it is true in most cases. How, even a non-official committee can feel at times the pressure of the Government of India’s decisions on certain aspects of education is well exemplified in the Report of the Secondary Education Integration Committee of the Bombay Government. The committee, while considering the optimum length of school course to be recommended for the Bombay State, felt more inclined towards a twelve-year school course suggested by the Centre, but the views of certain responsible members of Government of India prevailed upon the committee and it was constrained to observe that “though on educational grounds there was every thing to be said for a 12 years’ school course, weighing the pros and cons”, it (the committee) opted for a 11 years’ pattern to be followed by the three-year integrated degree course.² Such indirect control of education by the Centre and the strings in form of the Centre’s grant attached to the developmental schemes would have been strongly resented and bitterly opposed in a country like the U.S.A.³ but in an under-developed educational system like that of India it is necessary in the best interest of the speedy and well directed development of education. One would be inclined to agree with the reported views of the Union Minister of Education that “it was the duty of the states to implement the policy agreed upon by the bodies as otherwise there would be chaos in the educational system of the country”.⁴ The Government of India has thus been taking, through direct initiative and indirect influence and control, effective steps to accelerate the pace of the reconstruction of secondary education in the country.

¹ Estimates Committee. *Secondary Education*. Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. pp. 7-8.

² Bombay Government. *A Study by the Integration Committee for Secondary Education*, 1959. pp. 28-31.

³ I. L. Kandel, *The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955, pp. 181-85.

⁴ As quoted in *Bombay Secondary Education Intergration Committee's Report*. p. 30.

THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN THE FIELD OF HIGHER EDUCATION

We would now briefly consider the part being played by the Central Government in the field of university and rural higher education, excluding technical education and scientific research about which a separate section will be devoted.

Under the Item 66 of List I of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution, the Government of India is made responsible for the co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education and research and scientific and technical education. The duties in respect of higher education are discharged by the Government of India mostly through the University Grants Commission and the National Council for Rural Higher Education. During the last few years, the University Grants Commission has been able to adopt some vital measures of far-reaching effect on the better development of higher education in the country.¹

In order to bring about improvement in the deteriorating standards of university education, the Government of India has been recently stressing the need for controlling admissions to universities and restricting them to students who have requisite abilities and aptitudes to profit by such higher education. The reports of the Union Public Service Commission, the Indian Administrative Services and of other Central and the State Services deplore the poor standard of attainment of the graduates turned out by our universities. The below-the-mark standard of achievement of university students and the high percentage of failures at university examinations have made it imperative for the government to press for the adoption of effective measures to restrict university admissions.

During the post-independence era, the enrolment in the Indian universities has increased faster enough than could be taken care of by universities without lowering the standard of student attainment. "Whereas in 1947 we had 2,50,000 students in the universities, we now have 8,00,000 of them; and if this trend continues we should expect to have a million by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan period."² The anxiety of the Government of India about this trend is reflected in its Education Ministry's and the University Grants Commission's recent advocacy for restricting university admissions. But then there is great force in what the late Dr. J. C. Ghosh, a member of the Planning Commission, said:

¹ *Supra*, p. 48.

² *The Indian University Administration*. New Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1958. p. 53.

I should be the first person to maintain that not more than one lakh of these 10 lakhs of students ought to come to the University; but then what are we going to do with the remainder? In the existing circumstances, we have to accept this additional responsibility for university education, and I maintain that the State should provide a solution for this problem. . . . Quite frankly, the present Congress organisation believes in things like Primary or Basic Education but not in Higher Education. With such an attitude nothing will fructify".¹

It is being suggested that one way to improve the standard of higher education is for the University Grants Commission to take over under its charge all the Honours students after screening them thoroughly at the undergraduate level. The Government of India should consider this suggestion and make large funds available to the University Grants Commission to discharge this newly proposed responsibility.

The need for breaking up the existing barriers between cities and villages and the rural institutes for higher education and universities is being increasingly felt these days. It is, therefore, desirable that the curriculum and the examinations of the rural institutes should secure recognition from universities and there be a greater co-ordination between them.

The role of the Government of India in respect of higher education has assumed great importance in recent years in view of the increasing needs of the fast developing economy of the country under its national five-year plans. The role is intricate and complex as university education is a state subject and it involves the difficult problem of securing effective coordination of state efforts in the field of higher education and the co-operation of autonomous bodies like universities which have become, in recent years, very sensitive to external pulls and checks on their freedom. There are also many issues "which have to be resolved between the pressure of democratic urges and the educationists' insistence on ensuring reasonable standards"² However, it should be conceded that the Government has been playing quite an effective role in the improvement of higher education in India.

THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN THE IMPROVEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF TECHNICAL AND SCIENTIFIC EDUCATION IN THE COUNTRY

India is an under-developed country. Both the nature and pace of its development are conditioned by its development in scientific and technological education. The effective implementation of the development programmes planned under the five-year plans

¹ *Ibid*, pp. 53-54.

² *The Draft-National Third Five-Year Plan on Education*, p. 14.

depends largely upon the availability of scientists, engineers and technicians of the 'right type'. The Constitution has, therefore, vested the Government of India with the responsibility for expanding and improving the provision of technical education and scientific research in the country.

The Government of India discharges its functions and responsibilities in respect of technical education and scientific research through the University Grants Commission, the All-India Council for Technical Education and the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. In the case of the engineering and technological institutions, the University Grants Commission acts on the advice of the All-India Council for Technical Education and sanctions increase intake, extension of training facilities, opening of new centres of training, starting of new post-graduate courses in specialised subjects and determines how to maintain the quality of teaching in engineering and technological institutions. In respect of several development schemes in engineering and technological education, the University Grants Commission meets the entire non-recurring cost for building and equipment and bears in decreasing ratio the recurring expenditure for the duration of the Second Five-Year Plan on additional staff and maintenance. The main function of the All-India Council for Technical Education is to stimulate, coordinate and control the provision of educational facilities which the industries will need for their development in the National Development Five-Year Plans. The main job of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research pertains to the promotion of guidance and coordination of scientific and industrial research in India including the institution and the financing of specific research. A fuller discussion of how these bodies function and help the Government of India in discharging its responsibilities in the field of technical and scientific education will be examined later.¹ Hence we are restricting our attention to a general treatment of the activities of the Government of India in the field

One very significant activity of the Government of India is the setting up of a Directorate of Manpower in the Ministry of Home Affairs which would indicate 'the trends of requirements of technical manpower both on a quantitative and qualitative basis'. Another important measure adopted by the Government is to enhance the pay structure obtaining in technical institutions. Under the various foreign aid programmes, such as the T.C.M., the Colombo Plan, UNESCO, etc., the services of foreign experts have been and are being secured for the reorganisation and development of advanced courses and research in specialised fields. The post-graduate courses in technology and engineering are being better organised, enriched and augmented, and the laboratory facilities also are consi-

derably expanded and improved. The intake of engineering and technological institutions has also been appreciably increased. The annual intake of students in diploma and degree courses in engineering and technology is expected to increase by nearly four times from 10,000 in 1950-51 to 37,500 by the end of 1960-61.

Estimates of demand and supply for the second, third and fourth plans for graduates and diploma holders are shown in Table Two. The estimates of supply for the Fourth Plan have been based on the increased provision of facilities in the Third Plan.

TABLE 2

Demand and Supply of Technical Personnel in Second, Third and Fourth Plans

Category	Second Plan (1956-61)		Third Plan (1961-66)		Fourth Plan (1966-71)	
	Demand	Supply	Demand	Supply	Demand	Supply
Graduates...	28,000	26,000	45,000	51,000	73,000	75,275
Diploma Holders...	54,000	32,000	80,000	76,000	1,20,000	1,17,500

This trend towards the training of increasing number of technicians and engineers should be welcome in the light of the fact that the total outturn of engineers and technologists in 1946-47 was only 2,610. If India is to develop a socialistic pattern of society with better living standards for her people, she should develop her own science and technology and utilise her researches to build her industries and consequently her economy.

FEDERAL FINANCING OF EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.—One of the most significant developments in Indian education during the past ten years is the increased financial support to developmental schemes on education by the Government of India. This expanding federal aid to education has been due to Government's own realisation of the need for improving and expanding education at all levels and also due to the urgency of the need for equalising educational opportunities in light of the Constitutional directive for universal education and the nation's accepted goal of building up a socialistic pattern of society. The Government of India has been liberally aiding developmental schemes in all fields of education. Of course, certain schemes of

development have been earmarked for larger and sustained aid than others depending upon their importance and priority in the developmental programme under the five-year plans. In respect of grants to the state governments, universities and private agencies, the Government of India has adopted the principle of *matching grants* in order to ensure the partnership of these vital agencies in education. A fuller and more critical account of the federal financing of education would be given later in Chapter XIII dealing with the finance of education. Here, we will briefly consider the aids that the Central Government is giving in different fields of education.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — In regard to pre-primary education, the Government of India has not outlined any national policy. The reason put forward for this unfortunate state is 'the paucity of funds'¹. However, the CABE in its annual meeting in January 1961 recognised the need for promoting this important branch of education. The Government has also been giving financial assistance at the flat rate of 50 per cent of the approved developmental expenditure. This is also true in case of those state governments, which have prepared schemes under their five-year plans of opening more pre-primary schools or promoting training facilities for teachers of pre-primary schools. The Government also aids handsomely those voluntary bodies, which are doing outstanding and pioneering work for the improvement and development of education in the field. The interesting part of this assistance was that applications for grants from such institutions were entertained direct. There is another aspect of the central grants to pre-primary education, which needs to be changed. In the federal allocation of funds to education, specific and separate amounts for pre-primary education are not ear-marked.² This practice is unfortunate and should be modified. The Government of India should assume greater financial responsibility than what it is shouldering at present in view of the great importance of the early childhood education and in the light of the fact that one out of every eight persons in India is a child of pre-primary school age.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Financial assistance by the Government of India is most conspicuous in the field of primary education. The Central Government aids the state governments for opening basic, primary and middle schools, conversion of the primary schools into basic schools, opening and improvement of teacher-training institutions, transformation of primary training institutions into basic training institutions, organisations of seminars and refresher courses for teachers and headmasters, improvement in salary scales of teachers, strengthening the inspectorate, educational survey and such other schemes. Of course, these schemes have to be approved under the five-year plans.

¹ Estimates Commitee. *Primary Education*. Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. p. 5.

² *Ibid*, p. 7.

Generally, all normal expenditures on the maintenance of existing primary schools is borne by the state governments. The Government of India bears 50 per cent of the expenditure on new primary schools, and also 60 per cent of the expenditure incurred by the state governments for converting primary schools into basic schools.

The practice of treating all states on par for the purpose of the central financial assistance needs to be forthwith changed in the light of the fact that states differ among themselves in their financial resources, ability to support public schools, the number of children to be educated, the facilities in the form of schools and teachers available, the pay-scales of teachers, the rural nature of the areas, the backwardness of the people and the geographical handicaps. The schools are the bulwark of democracy. Unless the Government of India provides financial assistance to the states on the basis of the targets to be reached and factors such as the ability to support schools, educational load, the social, cultural and physical problems, the schools will become an instrument for creating those very inequalities they were designed to prevent. The following observations made by the Advisory Committee on Education of the United States in February 1938 hold also true in case of our country at present:

.....if the inability of the depressed economic areas and groups to provide proper education for their children is not corrected by aid from areas and groups more prosperous, the effect of American civilization and on representative political institutions may be disastrous.¹

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The central grants on secondary education to state governments cover schemes such as the conversion of existing high schools into multi-purpose schools by the introduction of diversified courses, improvement of facilities for teaching in the schools, teaching of science, improvement of school libraries, introduction of craft in lower secondary classes, and the training of teachers. During the Second Five-Year Plan, the areas of central assistance have been widened to cover any additional proposals included by the state governments in their approved programmes in accordance with the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission. Assistance was also given during the plan period at the rate of 60 per cent of upgrading a high school into a higher secondary school. The central grants for the conversion of high schools into multipurpose schools are on the basis of 66 per cent of the total non-recurring expenditure and 25 per cent of the recurring expenditure to be borne by the Central Government, the remaining 34 per cent and the 75 per cent respectively of non-recurring and recurring cost are to be met by the state government or the private organisations or the institution. In the draft

¹ *Report of the Committee on Education*. Washington, United States Government Printing Office, 1938. p. 34.

outline of the Third Five-Year Plan, a total provision of Rs. 90 crores has been made for secondary education for schemes of expansion.

UNIVERSITY AND RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION. — In case of the central universities, the entire cost of maintenance and development are borne by the Central Government, but in case of other universities, the Central Government bears only the cost on maintenance of standards and developments. The University Grants Commission determines and disburses grants, from the fund put at its disposal by the Government of India, to universities and institutions of higher learning. It was Rs. 27 crores under the Second Five-Year Plan. The proposed amount for university education in the draft outline of Third Five-Year Plan is Rs. 75 crores. 'In case of universities other than the central universities, these grants are given by the UGC for postgraduate instruction and research and other specific schemes for laboratories, or library facilities, construction of buildings for laboratories, enhancement of salary scales of university teachers, publication of researches, scholarships for postgraduate and research students, student welfare, etc. The Commission also gives grants for general purposes such as the three-year degree course, General Education courses, hobby workshops, poor student fund and regional language scholarships. These grants are given on the basis of the state government or the university bearing one-third of the non-recurring and half of the recurring expenditure. The UGC also assists universities in the form of loans for purposes such as the construction of students' hostels and of staff quarters. Both these loans are repayable in 25 years, but whereas the loans in case of students' hostels are interest-free those for staff-quarters carry 5 per cent annual interest. In case of private colleges, the Central Government has declared its policy to aid those which restrict their numbers to a maximum of 800.¹

Out of the total allocation of Rs. 27 crores made by the Central Government to the University Grants Commission under the Second Five-Year Plan, an amount approximating Rs. 10 crores was expected to be spent on the development of scientific education and Rs. 4.4 crores on technology.² In case of rural institutes for higher education, the Central Government bears 75 per cent of their non-recurring and 50, per cent of their recurring expenditure.

During recent years, dissatisfaction has been strongly manifested against the federal financing of university education. Suggestions are being made that the Government of India should take over the entire responsibility of post-graduate education and research. It is also being pointed out that finance cannot be stationary, and with the increasing costs

¹ *Indian University Administration, op. cit.* p. 58.

² Estimates Committee. *University and Rural Higher Education, op. cit.* p. 32.

of higher education, greater funds should be made available to universities without too many strings attached to the central grants. It is also maintained that the Government of India should follow the example of the Government of the United Kingdom where universities derive 74 per cent of their income from government funds and of the United States of America where the income of public universities from the Federal Government is about 27 per cent of their total resources.¹ Thus the recent trends in university education are for more federal aid for higher education, with less strings attached to it.

MISCELLANEOUS. — Besides these important fields, the Government of India is also giving financial assistance in respect of other programmes. A number of scholarships have been instituted by the Government to bring about a greater democratisation of opportunity. Among such scholarships, mention must be made of merit scholarships in public schools and the post matric scholarships for students of scheduled castes, tribes, and other backward classes. The education and the training of the handicapped is also covered by federal assistance. Cultural activities like the Sangeet Natak Akadami, Lalit Kala Akadami, Sahitya Akadami, National Museums, National Art, revival of Sanskrit, Indology and the development and propagation of Hindi, do get substantial financial assistance from the Government of India. During the first two five-years plan periods, the central allocation of finance to development schemes have been on the increase.²

In an under-developed country like India, with large-scale disparity of educational opportunity prevailing among different states, the federal financing of education is indispensable. The states and local bodies could be expected to bear at the most expenditure on the maintenance of educational institutions. The expenditure on the maintenance of standards in these institutions and on their development should be borne by the Government of India. Even in a well-developed country like the United States of America, the demand for greater federal financing of education is on the increase. The demand has been there for past several years. If there is any thing that comes in the way of the federal aid being given a legal status in the U.S.A., it is the fear that "control would follow the appropriation of federal grants to the states and the Federal Government would encroach on state's rights."³ Such a fear and such an opposition is not likely to develop in India. In an under-developed country with striking disparity in economic, educational and social development from states to states, the federal assistance to education would be the life blood of its educational development.

¹ *Indian University Administration. op. cit.* pp. 45-47.

² *Infra* Ch. XIII.

³ I. L. Kandel. *op. cit.* p. 184.

THE NATIONAL FIVE-YEAR PLANS ON EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.—One of the most important measures adopted by the Government of India after the attainment of independence was the setting up of a National Planning Commission and entrusting it with the great work of formulating the country's First Five-Year Plan. In respect of educational development, the Planning Commission stressed the following aspects of Indian education for improvement and development:

1. Inadequate educational facilities;
2. The top heavy structure of education with only 33·2 per cent of direct expenditure on primary schools;
3. Great disparity among states in matters of educational opportunity;
4. Uneven distribution of educational facilities between urban and rural areas;
5. Lack of balance between provision of facilities for different sections of society;
6. Large scale wastage;
7. Absence of adequate facilities for technical and vocational education and scientific research;
8. A very large percentage of untrained teachers;
9. Unsatisfactory scales of pay and conditions of service of teachers; and
10. Economic handicaps to poor but able students at the University level, etc.

THE PROGRESS UNDER THE FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN. — Under the First Five-Year Plan, the major financial burden fell on the state governments whose own financial resources were overstrained, and the Government of India's share was only 44 crores. This unhappy planning slowed down the pace of development considerably.

In the field of primary education, the enrolment in the age-groups 6-11 could be raised only upto 51 per cent from the 42 per cent enrolment of the pre-plan period. The increase in enrolment secured in the age-group 11-14 was a bare 5 per cent from 13·9 in 1951-52 to 19·2 in 1955-56. This achievement was very low and it soon became apparent that unless local sources were properly developed and tapped for the purpose of education, the Constitutional directive on universal education will not be fulfilled in near future and developments in other fields of education would remain at low level.

The Planning Commission, therefore, have taken up the difficult and intricate job of eradicating these shortcomings of Indian education in cooperation with the state governments. As against a sum of Rs. 169 crores provided under the First Five-Year Plan for the development of education, the Second Plan provided Rs. 307 crores — 95 crores at the Centre and Rs. 212 crores in the States. The Draft outline of the Third Five-Year Plan has provided Rs. 500 crores on education.

The achievements under the First Plan and targets aimed at under the Second Plan and the Draft Third Plan are indicated below:

TABLE 3
Achievements and Targets, Five-year Plans*

Activity	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66
Number of pupils of age group 6-11 (in lakhs)	1,92	2,52	3,30	5,04
Percentage thereof to total population of the age group	42.7	51.0	60.0	80.0
Number of pupils of age group 11-14 (in lakhs)	31	43	61	1,00
Percentage thereof to total population of the age group	12.9	16.3	22.6	30.0
Number of pupils of age group 14-17 (in lakhs)	12	20	30	44
Percentage thereof to total population of the age group	5.4	8.1	12.0	15.0
Number of primary/junior basic schools	2,09,700	2,78,135	3,54,900	5,00,000
Number of middle/senior basic schools	13,596	21,730	30,000	45,000
Number of high/higher secondary schools	7,288	10,838	14,000	18,000
Number of multi-purpose schools	—	367	1,600	1,800
Number of engineering and technological colleges	49	64	97	117
Number of polytechnics	86	102	208	273
Intake in engineering and technological colleges (degree level)	4,119	5,937	13,000	19,400
Intake in polytechnics (diploma level)	5,903	9,397	24,000	39,918
Outturn of graduates in engineering and technology	2,198	4,017	5,310	—
Outturn of diploma holders in engineering and technology	2,478	4,072	10,397	—

* India, 1961. p. 91.

TASKS AHEAD

INTRODUCTION. — In the course of the preceding sections, an attempt was made to present the organisational pattern of the Union Ministries of Education and of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs and their principal activities. It was pointed out how the functions and the programme of the Government of India have grown considerably in the stature, scope and complexity in the post-independence era. The achievements are many and impressive. Still, a good deal is yet to be done.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The Government of India should take early steps to set up an all-India council for pre-primary education and move in the matter of evolving an all-India policy in this vital and crucial field of education. Though education is a state subject, the Central Government should assume larger financial responsibility for pre-primary education especially in the backward areas of the country. The central leadership should be available to states and the voluntary organisations in this field.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The Third Five Year Plan aims at bringing all children in the age-group of 6-11 into schools by the end of the plan period. The target of 100 per cent enrolment in the Third Five-Year Plan had to be revised and only 80 per cent of the total number of children in the age-group 6-11 can be brought into schools in 1965-66 in light of the enrolment achieved at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan in the comparatively less developed states of Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh and in the light of suggestions of the Commissioner of Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Backward Communities that compulsory education should not be enforced in respect of children of these communities. This development would necessitate changes in several respects of planning in the field of primary education.

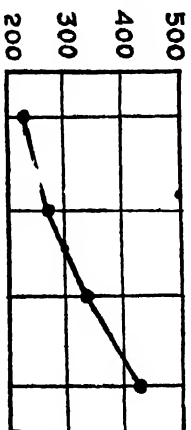
In the rural areas which inhabits the 82.1 per cent of the total population of the country (1961 Census), the problem of the universality of school provision presents many difficulties. Even if the 70,000 new primary schools to be opened during the Third Five-Year Plan are located as proposed in the educational survey of India, in all 96.70 per cent of the total number of habitations in the country could be given the facilities of schools. The Government of India shall have to do something for the remaining 3.30 per cent of small habitations. For them the Government shall have to plan for peripatetic teacher schools, central schools with hostel accommodation or with transport facilities attached to them.

Despite the best efforts of Government at all levels, the wastage in primary education is as large as 66.1 per cent (1951-52 to 1955-56). It is more than 70 per cent in some of the states: Assam (73.9 p.c.), Bombay (72.3 p.c.), Madhya Pradesh (70.1 p.c.), Orissa (78.4 p.c.) Uttar Pradesh, (70.8 p.c.), West Bengal (77.3 p.c.), Mysore (77.5 p.c.) and Manipur

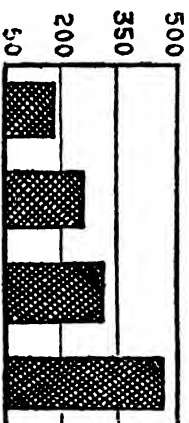
EDUCATION UNDER FIVE-YEAR PLANS

1950-51 TO 1965-66

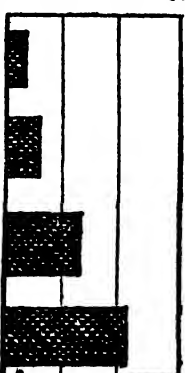
SCHOOLS



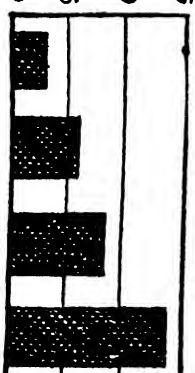
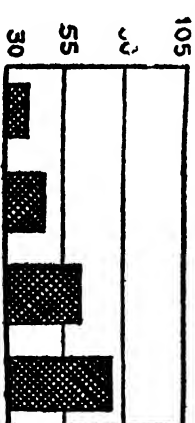
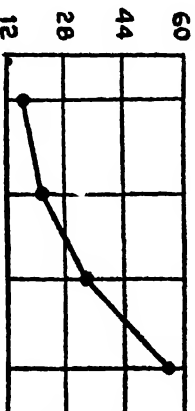
PRIMARY / JUNIOR BASIC SCHOOLS



TEACHERS



MIDDLE / SENIOR BASIC SCHOOLS



HIGH / HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

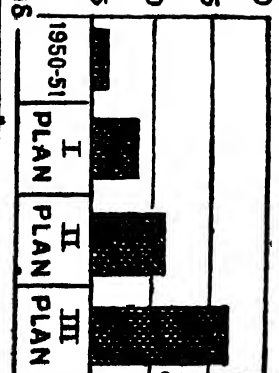
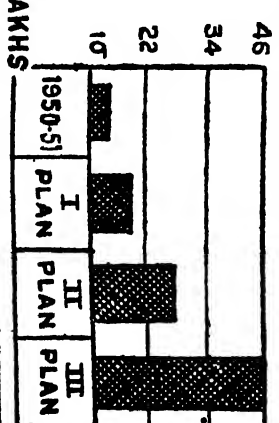
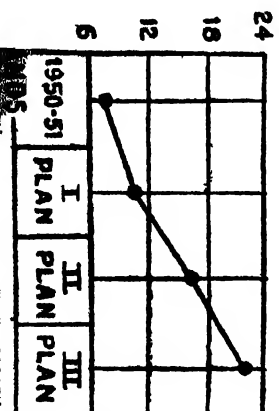


CHART 4

(76.5 p.c.). It is in the order of 74.0 p.c. in case of girls as against 62.4 per cent for boys. The high wastage at the primary stage has persisted for past several years. It is now time that the Government of India takes up a scientific study of the problem on an all-India basis with a view to determining both the real extent and causes of wastage in primary education.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The conversion of the existing high schools into the multi-purpose schools and setting up new ones form important parts of the programme of the Government of India in reconstructing secondary education. But considerable amount of confusion about the aims and objectives of the multi-purpose school prevails even among those who are closely associated with the administration of multi-purpose schools. The success of this crucial reform in secondary education depends, among other things, upon the clear conception of the multi-purpose school and its implications for reconstructing secondary education in the minds of those who are to implement the reform. In the best interest of this great reform, it is imperative that the Government of India sponsors a comprehensive study of the different kinds of schools of the multi-purpose pattern set up in different parts of the country, the curricula and the courses provided in them, the facilities that exist (and do not exist) for the adequate study of these courses, the teaching techniques and methods followed, and the problems and difficulties experienced by the heads of these schools, and plan for further development in the light of the findings of such a survey.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION. — The Government of India should take the revolutionary step of taking over the major responsibility of post-graduate education and research, if substantial improvement in higher education and research is to be effected. The recent basis of the central grants to the universities on the conditions of providing matching funds helps those states and universities which have better finances and are better inclined to ensure better university education. But it has not helped those states and universities which are not well placed financially to launch improved programmes of higher education. A better formula for the central grants for higher education, which would take care of this kind of disparity among states and universities, needs to be worked out through co-operate thinking of all bodies involved in this programme.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — In this very important field of national development, a good many important steps are yet to be taken by the Government of India. Some of these are suggested by Dr. S. N. Mukerji in his book "Education in India—Today and Tomorrow". They include: defining clearly government's policy regarding the medium of instruction of scientific and technological training, adoption of immediate measures for preventing the drift of teachers from technical institutions, providing the students real practical experience

in outside workshops, factories and farms, also providing to the students some experience in part-time paid jobs in industrial concerns, organising adequate facilities for after-school education of the technician, better planning and more concentration on industrial research.¹

NEED FOR BETTER CO-ORDINATION BETWEEN THE CENTRE AND STATE GOVERNMENTS. —
The Government of India has undertaken a great experiment in planned development. This necessitates closer and effective co-operation between the Central Government, state governments and non-official agencies in all areas of planning, including that of education. Inadequacy in this field would discredit the entire conception of planned development and vitiate greatly the results of the Plans. In educational planning and its execution, two conditions are vital. In the first place, there should be a full and clear understanding between state and state regarding their respective functions and spheres of actions. Second, there should be close field contacts amongst the officers at the Centre and the states and not merely exchange of papers and documents and occasional conferences. This is an important task with which the Government of India should concern itself more intensively than before and should take all steps to satisfy these two conditions if the National Plans on Educational Developments are to achieve the targets included in them.

These are some of the major tasks in education which the Government of India has to tackle immediately, utilising fully its resources and the best talents in education available in the country both in the public and private sectors.

¹ S. N. Mukerji. *Education in India — Today and Tomorrow*, (Fourth Edition). Baroda, Acharya Book Depot. 1960. pp. 282-289.

THE STATES OF INDIA

The Indian Union originally consisted of 29 administration units — ten Part 'A', eight Part 'B' and ten Part 'C' states, and one Part 'D' territory. On November 1, 1956, the map of the country was redrawn and out of the old Indian Union was carved out a New Indian Union with fourteen states and six centrally administered territories. On May 1, 1960 the Bombay State was sub-divided into two independent states—Gujarat and Maharashtra. Here are the details of the existing states and the union territories as on March 1, 1961:

TABLE 4

Area and Population in India and the Component States and Union Territories*

	Area in Square Miles	Population
INDIA	12,59,977	43,64,24,429
States		
1. Andhra Pradesh	1,06,052	3,59,77,999
2. Assam	84,899	1,18,60,059
3. Bihar	67,198	4,64,57,042
4. Gujarat	72,138	2,06,21,283
5. Jammu and Kashmir	86,024	35,83,585
6. Kerala	15,003	1,68,75,199
7. Madhya Pradesh	1,71,210	3,23,94,375
8. Madras	50,132	3,36,50,917
9. Maharashtra	1,18,530	3,95,04,294
10. Mysore	74,122	2,35,47,081
11. Orissa	60,162	1,75,65,645
12. Punjab	47,084	2,02,98,151
13. Rajasthan	1,32,150	2,01,46,173
14. Uttar Pradesh	1,13,454	7,37,52,914
15. West Bengal	33,928	3,49,67,634
Union Territories		
1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands	3,215	63,438
2. Delhi	573	26,44,058
3. Himachal Pradesh	10,879	13,48,982
4. Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands	11	24,108
5. Manipur	8,628	7,78,318
6. Tripura	4,036	11,41,492

* India, 1961. p. 15 and 544.

Shortly a new State is to emerge in the Indian Union. It is the Nagaland. It will have an area of 5,600 square miles, inhabited by various tribes, such as the Konyaks (63,586), the Aos (49,608), the Semas (40,385), the Angames (29,684) and the Lothas (23,492).

STATE RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATION

Since 1921, education has been a state subject under the direct control of an elected education minister responsible to the state legislature. The Constitution of Free India has not deviated from that pattern. It lays down that the states are responsible for "education including universities, subject to the provisions of entries 63,64,65 and 66 of List I and entry 25 of List III." The details of these provisions are given below:

List I.

63. The institutions known as the Banaras Hindu University, the Aligarh Muslim University and the Delhi University, and any other institution declared by Parliament by Law to be an institution of national importance.

64. Institutions for scientific or technical education financed by the Government of India wholly or in part and declared by Parliament by law to be considered as institutions of national importance.

65. Union agencies and institutions for—

(a) professional, vocational or technical training, including the training of police officers; or

(b) the promotion of special studies or research; or

(c) scientific or technical assistance in the investigation or detection of crime.

66. Coordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions.

List III

25. Vocational and technical training of labour.

Thus education at all stages, with two important qualifications, is a state subject. These qualifications are in respect of university education and technical education. In view of the need for coordination of facilities and maintenance of standards at the higher levels, the Constitution has placed on the Central Government the responsibility in these regards. The heavy expenses involved in scientific and technical education require that there should be avoidance of any duplication in these fields. The promotion of higher scientific and technical education is, therefore, a central responsibility.

The Constitution also directs, "The state shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education

¹ *The Constitution of India, Seventh Schedule, Article 11.*

for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years."¹ This is a great responsibility with which the Government is entrusted and which is yet to be fulfilled.

There is an increasing trend towards centralization in education during recent years. This is mainly due to the financial aids, which the states receive from the Government of India for the execution of educational programmes approved by the Centre. In a dynamic society, more and more educational programmes may merit consideration of the Government of India. It is, however, seen that the new plans of education in different states are based on the pattern suggested by the Centre. This is resulting in regimental uniformity. For example, the country has adopted the basic system of education, it has also been agreed that secondary schools should be of the higher secondary type, and that the degree course should be of three years' duration. But this does not mean that the entire country should follow these structural patterns rigidly, and that no other combinations are to be permitted. "Regimental uniformity", as the University Education Commission says, "has been a habit of mind of Indian education."² So long as the requirements of education are met, would it make a great difference whether secondary education ceases at 16 or 17 or 18, or whether the degree course is of three or four years' duration? The U.S.A.³ is still carrying on with five types of secondary schools based on different age combinations. No efforts have been made to regiment these into a dead uniformity. Some of the British universities have recently introduced a four-year degree course. It should always be borne in mind that state controls in government, and especially in education, have values that we should do our best to retain. The Government of India should be entrusted with two major responsibilities: (1) it should furnish educational leadership through its various agencies, and (2) it should furnish financial aids to equalize educational opportunity. Further, the Central Government should have full confidence in state governments. While offering financial assistance, it should not lay down any conditions except the submission of accounts to be checked by an authorized central agency.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

THE STATE EXECUTIVE. — The state executive in every state consists of the governor and a council of ministers with the chief minister at its head. The governor of a state is appointed by the President of India for a term of five years and holds office during his pleasure.

The chief minister is appointed by the governor, who also appoints other ministers on the advice of the chief minister. The council of ministers, which holds office during the pleasure of the governor, is collectively responsible to the legislative assembly of the state. One of the ministers is responsible for controlling educational policy and directing its execu-

¹ *Ibid.* Article 45.

² *University Education Commission's Report*, 1948-49. p 546.

tion. But generally a minister holds charge of a number of portfolios including education. The minister of education may, however, be assisted by a deputy minister. This is the practice at present in Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, Maharashtra, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan, U. P. and West Bengal.

It is also found that the minister of education may not be responsible for entire education. There are other ministers and departments, which have the responsibility in their special fields. The Departments of Agriculture, Engineering, Commerce and Industries, Public Health, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary, and Home have under their control schools and colleges of different kinds. It has often happened that these different departments are not in touch with one another's activities nor is the education department in a position to co-ordinate them with a view to increasing efficiency and securing economy of efforts. It seems, therefore, necessary that there should be a co-ordinating agency and that problems of a similar nature pertaining to more than one ministry or department should be discussed by them thoroughly and a concerted programme of education should be formulated.

There are other administrative problems. In the first place, the majority of ministers of education are neither educationists nor have they any practical experience of educational administration. Thus being non-technical persons, they have to depend on the permanent staff for technical advice. In the second place, there is a lack of continuity in policy because policies at times change with the change in ministry. Nothing is more harmful to the cause of education than a trial-error method. Under the present conditions, the minister is responsible for the consideration, adoption and execution of policy, and for this purpose he should obviously receive and consider the advice of the director of education. In the third place, the political ideology of the ruling party influences the educational policy. Experience shows that political conditions make it expedient for those in authority sometimes to depart from a dispassionate treatment of a difficult situation on its educational merits. This argument cannot be treated lightly. Education cannot depend on the caprice of politicians.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. — Every state in India has a department of education. It has three main functions—regulatory, operational and directive. Regulatory function involves three important aspects: (a) development of standards, rules and regulations, (b) examination and inspection to determine competence, and (c) the investigation, where necessary, of compliance procedures. The state department of education is also vested with operational functions. Like any other agency, it runs schools and colleges. In some of the states, there is even nationalisation of text-books for elementary and secondary schools. The real effectiveness of the state department of education lies in providing proper

directive or creative leadership. The main leadership functions are: (1) long-range planning, (2) coordination of the educational programmes of the state with a view to providing improved policies, and procedures and for eliminating inefficiency, duplication and waste; (3) providing competent consultative and advisory service to the legislature, the minister, the staff of school systems, educational associations, and to the public in general on all aspects of the educational programme, (4) leadership in research on the state's educational programmes and cooperation in the research activities of other groups and agencies; and (5) the final appraisal of the total educational programme at the end of the financial year.

The department of education is under the direct control of the state minister for education. He is the capstone of the state education system. If he is a man of vision, courage and devotion to education, he can provide the leadership for the development of an educational programme in his state which will meet the needs of individuals and of society. There will also be an awareness of the strengths and shortcomings of the educational system in such a state. The legislature will be informed regarding the educational service and needed improvements in it. On the other hand, if he is lacking in vision, courage and administrative ability, the education of the state cannot be progressive.

The authority of the minister for education in the matter of proper reorganization, management and control of education is exercised through the officers of the department of education, the universities, the statutory boards, local bodies and other recognized agencies. Technically speaking, the minister is assisted by a secretary at the secretarial level and by the director of education as the executive head of the department. Thus the department of education has two wings: one is the secretariat of education which is a policy-making body and an appellate body, and the other is the directorate of education which is an executive body.

THE SECRETARIAT OF EDUCATION. The secretariat is directly connected with the education minister and the deputy minister. All policies regarding education are decided in the secretariat of education. The presiding officer is designated as the education secretary and he is assisted by a deputy secretary and assistant secretaries.

The secretary passes orders on behalf of government and is, as a rule, a member of the Indian Administrative Service. He is permanent in the sense that he is a permanent officer of the government, but he is temporary in that his appointment as secretary for education is normally for a short period. Moreover, he may be secretary to the government not only for education but for some other subjects as well, and may have responsibilities to more than one minister; and he probably reaches his post without previous experience of the administration of education. But except West Bengal, every state, has a separate post of a secretary apart from the director of education. On the retirement of the last director

of public instruction in West Bengal on March 1, 1957, the education secretary assumed the post of the director of public instruction in addition to his own duties.

The secretary acts for most, though not all, purposes as the superior officer of the director. The letters and unofficial references of the director pass through the secretary's hands and are noted by him before they reach the minister. Routine cases are disposed of by the secretary and all orders of government are issued in his name. Thus the proposals and policies submitted by the director of education are studied critically by the subordinate officers of the secretariat and as a result may be sometime presented in a form which may be quite different from what was originally conceived by the director.

THE DIRECTORATE OF EDUCATION. — The directorate of education is an executive body. It carries out the general policy of the government in power. It is, in fact, a connecting link between the hundreds of educational institutions in the state and government. It keeps government well informed about conditions obtaining in different branches of education, the progress achieved therein, people's reactions to the state policy, their needs and requirements, etc. The directorate of education is the eye, ears and feet of the state government in the field of education.

The highest officer of the directorate of education is the director of education or the director of public instruction. He is invariably chosen from state educational service and as a rule, reaches the position of director of education only after considerable experience in the department of education and, possibly, as an inspector.

The director of education is, in fact, the expert adviser to the minister in matters of policy and in some of the states he takes his place beside the minister in the legislative assembly. He is the highest executive authority in education, and is responsible for the administration of education of the entire state. As such, he has to deal with a large number of districts, with a number of colleges, and with thousands of schools, some under public and others under private management. He must keep himself in touch with the different parts of the state by frequent touring. He has to deal with a large number of local bodies entrusted with duties in regard to primary education. He has to organise the training of teachers, primary and secondary. He is responsible for girls' education as well as for that of boys. He has to deal with a number of cases of indiscipline. He is an *ex-officio* member of the government bodies of the local university or universities. He has often to advise government departments other than his own in regard to the appointment of suitable applicants for the posts under their control and in regard to educational questions which affect them.

RELATIONS OF SECRETARY AND DIRECTOR. — It is at times felt that there is no need for an intermediary officer between the minister and the director of education, and that the

•latter offices should be directly responsible for advising the minister. This was pointed out repeatedly in various reports, e.g., the Hartog Report, Abbott-Wood Report, Sargent Report, Secondary Education Commission's Report, and the Report of a Study by an International Team of Experts.

Historically, there are three main reasons for the appointment of an education secretary. The first is the concentration in many states of all executive power in the governor who, through pressure of his manifold duties, was unable to maintain personal contact with all heads of departments. This need has now disappeared. The governor is now a figure-head; the education minister is responsible for education and he is always in direct and close contact with the director of education.

The second reason is that while the secretary can have an overall view of the resources and administrative problems of the entire state, the director's attention is confined to the needs of the department of education only. He often puts forth plans without having a proper understanding of how his educational schemes would fit in with other programmes of the state. There are interesting incidents where the same officer worked in two capacities, viz., as the secretary and the director of education, and expressed view-points which differed from each other.

The third reason is the assumption that the director would require "reinforcement on the administrative and political side." As a matter of fact, under existing conditions, it is only rarely that the secretary is in a position to give much administrative guidance. Government does not demand from this officer an expert knowledge of education or of educational administration as an initial qualification and often gives him so short a tenure of office that it is impossible for him to acquire it. The past records show that secretaries change a bit too frequently. In this connection, the advice of Messrs. Abbott and Wood is noteworthy:

Education is an extensive and a technical subject; and its administration inevitably involves delicate and complicated issues. We do not believe that the formulation and execution of long-range policy in education, as distinguished from mere temporary expedients and experiments, can be effective unless one condition, at least, is satisfied. The ultimate direction of education, subject of course to the minister, must be in the hands of some one whose knowledge and experience of educational administration and whose permanence in the education service give him the qualifications and the right to deal authoritatively with the administrative aspects of educational problems and, with the advice of the D.E., with their more pedagogic aspects.¹

¹ *Abbott-Wood Report*. pp. 29-30.

Such permanence and such qualifications are essential not only for avoiding delay in day-to-day administration, but are also necessary if the secretary is to discharge his duties properly to the minister of education. This is why the Sargent Report held, "There can be no possible justification for interposing an officer without an expert knowledge of education between the director of public instruction and the minister of education to whom he should be directly responsible."¹ The Report, therefore, suggested that the director of education should be responsible to the government for the general administration of education (other than university and higher technical education).² This principle was accepted in the beginning by a few states. But with the expansion of education, they abandoned the policy and the secretary's post was again revived. There are other practical difficulties associated with the abolition of the secretary's post. For example, in some of the states, the headquarters of the minister and the director of education are in two different buildings situated at long distances and may be even in two different cities. Communications, under the circumstances, become difficult. Experience also shows that the director of education is already too much immersed in administration for the effective discharge of all his duties, and he finds it difficult to shoulder the responsibilities of the secretary.

There are two possible solutions of such a perplexing problem. In the first place, it will be possible for the director of education to advise the minister on matters of policy as well as to perform his routine duties, provided he has readily available at headquarters, a staff of experienced officers. And this is the best solution. But where the offices of the minister and the director of education are in two different buildings, an officer of the status of an under-secretary may be appointed. He should be an experienced officer of the education department and should handle no portfolio other than education. Under the circumstances, as the Secondary Education Commission suggests, "Where the director himself is not the secretary of the department, he should have the status of a joint secretary and should have direct access to the minister."³

ADMINISTRATIVE SUB-UNITS. — It should not be supposed that the director of education alone carries on the educational administration of the state. Working directly under him are the deputy and assistant directors and below them various grades of inspectors and inspectresses, deputy inspectors and deputy inspectresses, sub-inspectors and sub-inspectresses, etc. Generally, a state is divided into divisions or circles, consisting of a group of districts. Each division is under the charge of a divisional inspector or superintendent. A division is further divided into districts. Each district is administered by a district educational

¹ *Sargent Report*. p. 64.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ *Secondary Education Commission's Report*. p. 87.

inspector (D.E.I.). He is assisted by a number of assistants. The D.E.I. is responsible to the divisional inspector.¹

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE DIRECTORATE OF EDUCATION

COMMON ELEMENTS. — Every state has a chief state executive, usually known as the director of education or the director of public instruction. Every state has some type of state board of education. Its functions, however, vary from state to state. Responsibilities for the various branches of education are also divided amongst different authorities. The state department of education shares the responsibility of university and secondary education with universities and boards of secondary and intermediate education wherever they exist. The department also supervises the work of local bodies, which are in charge of entire elementary education and are also partially responsible for secondary education in some states.

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION. — The position of the director of education in relation to the minister of education and the secretary has already been examined. He is the head of the administrative machinery in the state and he carries out the general policy laid down by the government in power. He has several duties. He supervises the work of government officials, and is in charge of their leave and transfer. He is again an *ex officio* member of the State Public Services' Commission for selecting gazetted officers for the department of education. He is also the final authority for determining and disbursing grants to non-government institutions, though he seldom changes the recommendations of lower officers.

He is also the *ex-officio* member of the syndicate or the executive council of all the universities within the state, and this is how he is in direct touch with them. He is also the *ex-officio* chairman or the member of the secondary education board in his state, and can exercise large emergency powers. In the field of elementary education he has limited authority, which is generally given to local bodies, which get block subsidies from the education department.

The director is assisted by a number of officers. In some of the states, he is helped by a joint director, e.g., Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Rajasthan, the last state has, in addition, the post of an additional director of education. The director of education has also a number of deputy or assistant directors under him. The table following will give an idea of the strength of the directorate in different states.

¹ *Infra.* p. 96.

TABLE 5

The Strength of the Educational Directorate, 1956-57*

Sr. No.	State	Deputy Directors of Education.	Assistant Directors of Education.
1	Andhra Pradesh	6	6
2	Assam	2	1
3	Bihar	7	7
4	Bombay	11	1
5	Jammu & Kashmir	2	—
6	Kerala	4	1
7	Madhya Pradesh	8	1
8	Madras	3	—
9	Mysore	7	—
10	Orissa	3	—
11	Punjab	5	5
12	Rajasthan	7	4
13	Uttar Pradesh	12	2
14	West Bengal	3	—

* Compiled from *Education in the States*, 1956-57.

Among the officers shown above, four are ladies (one in Bihar, one in the Punjab and two in Rajasthan). A few states like Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh have regional deputy directors in addition to those at the headquarters. The deputy and assistant directors perform the work delegated to them by the director. Each of these officers is in charge of one or more portfolios, the more important among them are: higher education, secondary education, elementary and basic education, finance, social education, planning, etc. A detailed discussion of various portfolios in different states has been given in Part III of this book.

Besides the officers mentioned above some of the states have also appointed administrative officers of lower rank for specialised branches of education, e.g., visual instruction, arts and crafts, guidance, physical education, oriental learning, commercial education, etc.

It may be noted that in the early stages, the department of education was generally concerned with a few schools and colleges and with essential branches of education. During the last decade, not only has the number of educational institutions increased rapidly but new ideologies of education have come to the forefront. With the enlargement of these responsibilities, the administration of education has become more complex. In fact, the magnitude of the problems facing education today is taxing the leadership and the

resources of the state departments of education to the utmost. These problems cannot be solved effectively if departments are forced to operate under such organization structures which are not conducive to efficient functioning.

In organization structures ideas come first then they appear in practice, and, with the changing times, either undergo appropriate revision or operate in a climate of obsolescence. Organizations for educational administration are no exception. They must be continuously subject to revision if they are to meet felt or changing needs. Many states have frameworks of state education organization which are admittedly inadequate for the tasks of education in our complex society. Obsolete arrangements have remained through the years, even though leaders in education today understand proper functions and services of state departments. It is time to re-examine state education machinery for the purpose of modernizing it, and enabling it to perform its essential services and functions.

In the first place, the director of education should have readily available at headquarters a staff of experienced officers and specialists in different branches of education. The department of education is faced today with following service areas: (1) university education, (2) professional and vocational education, (3) teacher education, (4) secondary education, (5) elementary or basic education, (6) social education, (7) physical education, (8) audio-visual materials, (9) finance, (10) appointments, (11) guidance, (12) instructional services, (13) research and statistics, (14) school library, (15) school plant, (16) text-books, (17) handicapped children, and so on. But the majority of states have been severely handicapped because of the limited staff which they have. The budgetary allotment of the department of education of these states is small. As such provision has been made largely for personnel recognized as essentials in administration, and the new programmes of education have not been attended to. A number of state departments of education have been handicapped in securing outstanding personnel, either because salaries are not attractive or a competent staff is not available in certain fields of education. In short, effective administration of education will not be possible unless the director of education has readily available at headquarters, an adequate staff of competent officers, specialising in different branches and fields of education.

In the second place, there is an urgent need for a greater organizational flexibility in administration. While division of duties and responsibilities is absolutely necessary for maintaining administrative efficiency, it is not desirable that the different heads develop a feeling of isolation. The entire department should be flexibly organized for planning and operating on the assumption that instruction is the supreme function and that all activities starting from this basic purpose should be so oriented in planning and operation.

From time to time, different heads should meet and discuss common problems. This leads to coordination of efforts and necessary changes in the entire plan. Through this means, unity of aim and effort is maintained and necessary adjustments can be made. Finally, it seems hardly necessary to mention that the director's office should delegate broad responsibilities to divisional and district inspectors. Considering the tempo of the spread in education, adoption of such a step has become very urgent.

STATE ADVISORY BOARDS OF EDUCATION. --- In the purpose of advising the government on matters pertaining to education, nearly all the states have advisory boards of education. But while some have one general board dealing with various aspects of education, others have several boards — each being assigned a specific branch or aspect of education. A few have a combination of both the systems. While one fully appreciates the value of special boards, the need for a general board coordinating the activities of different boards and paying attention to the total educational needs of the state cannot be overlooked. This is why the Secondary Education Commission advised the constitution of the state advisory board for advising the education department in all matters pertaining to education. It suggested, "The board may function on lines similar to the Central Advisory Board of Education and should be composed of representatives of the teaching profession, the universities, managements of high schools and higher secondary schools, heads of departments dealing with different spheres of education, representatives of industry, trade and commerce, and the legislature and the general public."¹ It is expected that such a body will advise the department of education on all matters pertaining to education, particularly its improvement both in quality and quantity. States like Bihar and Kerala have such boards.

FINANCE. — On 31st March, 1947, the major states and centrally administered areas together spent about Rs. 205 million on education. The central budget was considerably less than Rs. 20 million. The figures for three recent years, 1954-55, 1955-56 and 1956-57 show that the total budget provision for education by the central and state governments together were Rs. 1,177, Rs. 1,517 and Rs. 1,789 million respectively, so that even in the course of these three years, the amount has increased by about 53 per cent. In 1956-57, the amount provided for national budget was 12.3 per cent of the total national budget.²

It is thus quite clear that every state is paying increased attention to education. The table following gives an idea of the funds provided for education and the total budget of different states in this country during 1960-61.

¹ *Secondary Education Commission's Report*, p. 193.

² Government of India. *Ten Years of Freedom*. Delhi, Manager of Publications. 1957. p. 65.

EDUCATIONAL BUDGETS OF STATES 1960-61

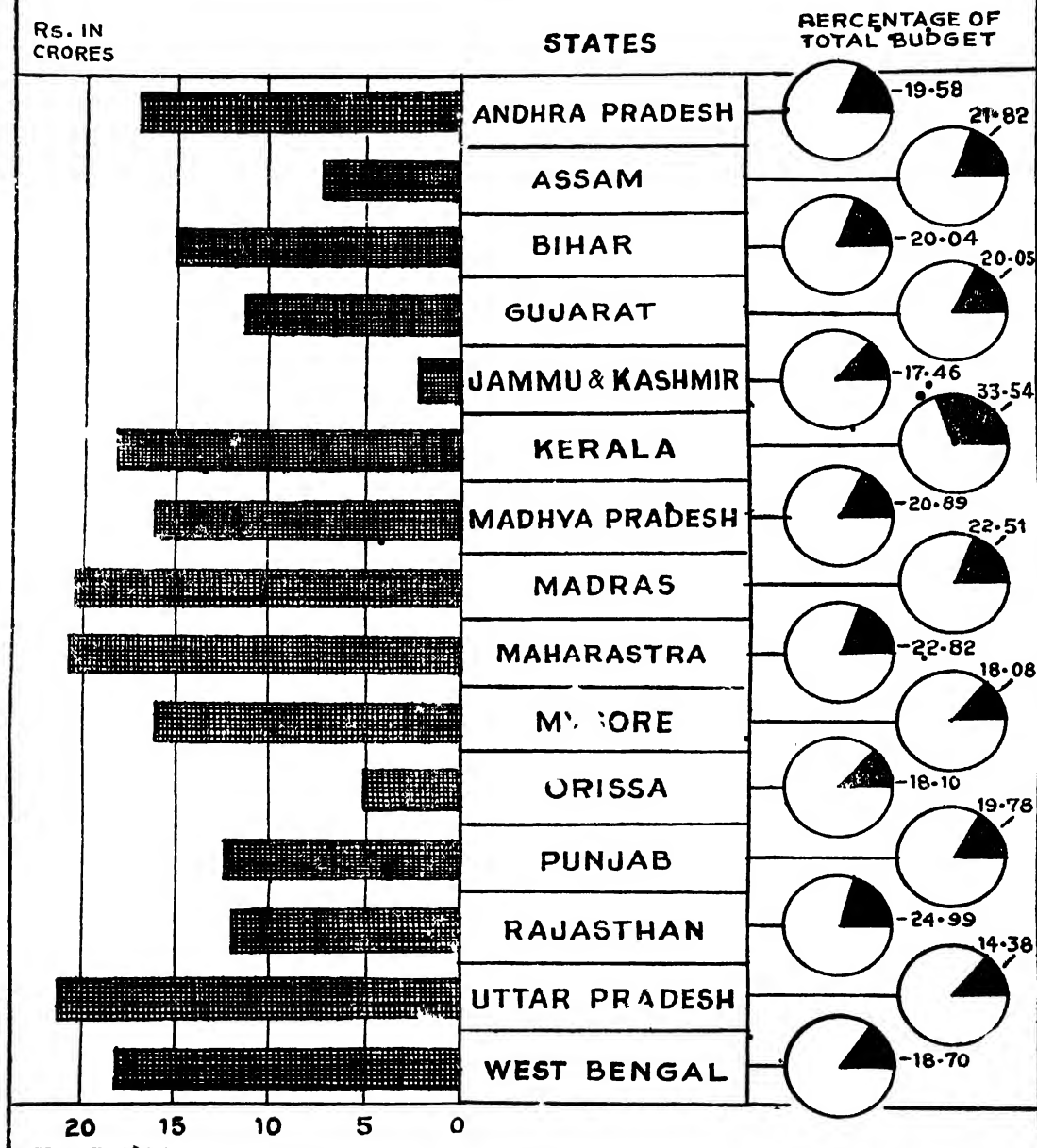


CHART 6

TABLE 6

Educational and Total Budgets of Different States, 1960-61.*
(in lakhs of rupees)

State	Educational Budget	Total Budget	Percentage of 2 to 3
1	2	3	4
Andhra Pradesh	17,16.55	87,62.93	19.58
Assam	8,07.75	37,01.51	21.82
Bihar	15,84.92	79,07.73	20.04
Gujarat	11,65.46	58,11.82	20.05
Jammu & Kashmir	2,41.28	13,82.84	17.46
Kerala	18,09.68	54.01.35	33.54
Madhya Pradesh	16,77.52	80.26.76	20.89
Madras	20,61.90	90,35.32	22.51
Maharashtra	20,80.83	1,10,68.54	22.82
Mysore	16,45.00	90,85.92	18.08
Orissa	5,43.92	45,28.93	18.10
Punjab	12,77.31	64,72.65	19.78
Rajasthan	12,27.37	49,26.13	24.99
U. P.	21,17.19	1,54,12.52	14.38
West Bengal	18,45.82	98,67.82	18.70

* India, 1961. pp. 386-454.

The above table shows that Uttar Pradesh earmarked the largest amount for education followed by Maharashtra, Madras, West Bengal and Mysore. But on percentage basis, the position is quite different. Of the fifteen states, only one state has set apart more than 25 per cent of its budget for education, seven between 20 and 25 per cent, six between 15 and 20 per cent, and one less than 15 per cent. It is thus quite clear that some of the states can afford to spend a fair proportion of their revenue on education. It is mainly because they have a large revenue per head. It may also be noted that in some of the backward states, a larger section of the population is scattered over hill and forest areas.

The states differ strikingly also in the proportion spent on different branches of education, as the table following shows:

TABLE 7

Percentage of the Total Direct and Indirect Expenditure Alloted to Different Branches of Education, 1956-57.*

States	Indirect		Direct					
	Direction & Inspection.	Miscellaneous	Higher Education	Secondary Education	Primary Education	Pre-primary Education	Vocational and Technical schools	Special Education Schools
Andhra ...	2.02	15.13	14.07	22.68	42.26	0.05	2.73	1.06
Assam ...	3.03	25.04	11.02	32.11	22.08	0.08	4.03	0.81
Bihar ...	2.44	34.04	13.97	26.94	18.45	0.03	3.02	1.83
Bombay ...	1.48	17.29	14.76	30.71	31.05	0.39	3.52	0.08
Jammu & Kashmir ...	2.57	20.99	15.36	39.17	19.09	—	2.01	—
Kerala ...	2.12	24.19	9.05	30.93	31.55	0.01	1.38	0.32
Madhya Pradesh ...	3.65	17.28	13.39	26.31	34.57	0.03	3.03	1.02
Madras ...	1.84	24.12	12.95	21.29	36.42	0.08	2.61	0.69
Mysore ...	1.82	18.76	12.81	25.74	36.82	0.14	3.34	0.57
Orissa ...	3.28	32.09	9.57	19.59	25.72	—	2.69	6.25
Punjab ...	2.14	11.92	19.79	39.64	23.55	0.01	2.45	0.05
Rajasthan ...	2.92	8.38	20.86	37.46	26.19	0.0002	2.39	1.08
Uttar Pradesh ...	2.14	16.66	24.13	38.85	20.47	0.01	2.05	2.15
West Bengal ...	0.98	26.97	18.02	25.56	23.53	0.01	2.75	2.09
India ...	2.00	20.62	16.27	28.47	28.34	0.14	2.61	1.35

* Compiled from *Education in the States*, 1956-57.

In considering the variations in the percentage spent on the various branches of education in the states, it is necessary to remember that there must have been considerable fluctuations from year to year, especially under 'Miscellaneous Expenditure' which includes large capital expenditure on buildings and equipment, and that such fluctuations affect the percentages for the branches under other headings. The comparative figures on different items of expenditure are interesting. Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Punjab, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh spend more on secondary rather than on primary education. Some of the states like Bombay, Kerala and West Bengal spend more or less the same percentage of amount on these two branches of education. It is also striking to note that the expenditure on higher education in the Uttar Pradesh is much higher than on primary education.

THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION. — Indian universities are semi-autonomous bodies, i.e., they are not fully state controlled. In fact, they stand midway between the British and continental universities. On the one hand they are independent of the state but they do not enjoy full freedom like British universities; on the other hand, government control over

them is nothing like the all-prevailing control of the state over the universities of France or Germany. The Indian universities are dependent on the state in two ways: (1) they are created by acts of state legislatures, and are thus dependent on government for their constitution and powers; and (2) they receive annual financial aids for recurring and non-recurring expenses from the state — the total amount depending on the sanction of state legislatures. But for these two restrictions, the Indian universities are more or less autonomous.

Educationists in recent years have been concerned a great deal over the autonomy of universities. Governments, it has been felt, have developed a tendency to interfere with matters educational. There have been cases of political influence being used. It has already been pointed out that generally the governor of the state where a university is situated is its *ex-officio* chancellor and that the vice-chancellor is responsible to him. It is, however, noticed that besides the chancellor, the vice-chancellor has to receive instructions from the ministers of the government as well. On the eve of his retirement from the office of the vice-chancellor of the Bombay University, the late Dr. John Matthai pointed out that in connection with some university appointments he had to "switch from the chancellor to the ministers concerned and back again to the chancellor."¹ He further observed that the present system of making governors the chancellors of universities must end as it "provided a channel through which political influence is working its way into the universities."¹ This observation has a unique importance, and the academic world of this country owes a great debt to him.

As an illustration of government interference in matters educational, we find the Madras University and the state government struggling for control over collegiate and post-graduate education in the state. The controversy relates to three issues: (1) the introduction of the three-year degree courses, (2) the introduction of the regional language as the medium of instruction in colleges, and (3) the publication of text-books by the government. The struggle is still continuing.

The cases cited above raise a fundamental question: Should the government interfere with the autonomy of the universities? While it is agreed on all hands that university autonomy is basic to "democracy in education and to education for democracy", yet one feels that complete independence has not always led to the best results. As Sri C. D. Desmukh has rightly remarked:

¹ *Times of India*, February 28, 1957.

Often enough autonomy has been responsible for mismanagement and maladministration. It is because of the absence of control that some universities were turned into hotbeds of internal politics and intrigue. Universities, of course, must not be allowed to become additional departments of ministries of education. But at the same time the central and state governments should have the powers to ensure the maintenance of certain standards and to see that the grants given to universities are properly utilized.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The state department of education has more or less, full control over secondary education. It recognises schools, gives grants to aided schools, prescribes the courses and sanctions text-books. Except in Assam, Punjab, and Jammu & Kashmir, every state has at least one statutory board of secondary education. While in some of the states such boards are responsible only for the S.S.C. class, in others these boards have wider powers. Such a system at times results in duplication of efforts and duality of controls. It is, therefore, suggested that while the boards should have full control over academic aspects, the department of education should look to administrative details, viz., recognition of schools, award of grants, teachers' rights, school grants, etc.

The main problem affecting the administration of secondary education is ineffective inspection. This aspect of administration has been examined later in this chapter. There is also a universal complaint regarding the deterioration in the standards of teaching, and the large number of pupils failing in the S.S.C. examination, which reveal the wastage in secondary education. There are several reasons leading to this wastage, the main factor being the sharp rise in the student enrolment during the last twenty-five years which has not been accompanied by a proportionate rise in the number of schools. Consequently there has been a pressure and strain on the existing schools.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Article 45 of the Constitution of India lays down, "The state shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years." This directive has been hardly achieved. During 1951-61, the proportion of boys in the age-group 6-11 attending schools has increased from 60 to 70 per cent and of girls from 20 to 40 per cent. The proportion of girls in the age-group 6-11 attending school is markedly lower than the average in six states, viz., Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Bihar and Orissa. In these states, primary education will be given the resources and facilities needed, so that the all-India figures may reach about 80 per cent at the end of Third Plan.¹

¹ *Third Five-Year Plan—A Draft Outline*, p. 10.

Thus the expansion of primary education is receiving due attention in our national life. In almost in all the states, this important portfolio is handled by a deputy director of education, and in some of the states even by an additional or a joint director of education. A number of states have set up a standing advisory board of primary education, with non-official representation. States like Bengal, Maharashtra, Assam, Gujarat and Bihar have statutory boards of primary education.

With the advent of the Montford Reforms, the state governments have more or less delegated administrative control over primary education to local authorities reserving to themselves only a few broad powers of supervision and financial control. Generally, even the authority for inspection of primary schools has been entrusted to local bodies. The state governments control primary education in several ways. They prescribe primary education rules, lay down curricula and syllabi, prescribe pay-scales for teachers, determine the number of members on each school board and appoint government nominees on them. If it is found that any of the local authorities is unable to exercise its powers and perform its functions for some reason or other, the state governments can pass an ordinance to provide for the administration of the local authority. The state governments further give grants for primary education, which are sometimes statutory and sometimes discretionary. The grants for voluntary education are generally discretionary because the necessity to legislate on the subject never arose. On the other hand, when compulsory education acts were passed, they generally made provision for the grant-in-aid which the state should pay towards approved schemes of compulsion and hence the grants for compulsory education are mostly statutory.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION. — It has already been pointed out that while the department of education is responsible for the activities connected with school education, there are other ministries which have their own organization for imparting education of a particular type. The Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Commerce and Industries, the Ministry of Medicine have under their control, schools and colleges in their specialised branches. There are notable exceptions also. For example in Bengal the junior technical schools, the polytechnic institutions, and the Bengal Engineering College at Sibpur are under the control of the education department. Nearly all the states have now separate directorates for technical education. Some of the states have a few posts of special officers attached to the department of education, e.g., craft inspector (Bihar), inspector of drawing and craft-work (Gujarat and Maharashtra), inspector for commercial schools (Gujarat, Mysore and Maharashtra), inspector for technical schools (Madhya Pradesh), technical education officer (Madras).

OTHER BRANCHES. — Besides the main branches of education, discussed in the preceding sections, there are other branches which are administered in different ways in different provinces. For example, oriental studies have received due recognition in some states. Rajasthan has an independent director of education for oriental studies, and Bihar has two assistant directors—one for Sanskrit education and the other for Islamic studies. Orissa has the post of a superintendent of Sanskrit studies, and West Bengal has an inspector of *tols*.

Social education has also received due recognition. Every state has either a deputy director of education or a chief education officer, who is at the helm of this important branch of education. There are special officers for other branches, viz., physical education, audio-visual instruction, guidance and counselling, libraries, etc.

INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS

ORIGIN. — Inspection of schools has an interesting origin. When a central or state agency starts financing education, it has to take care to see that the money sanctioned for educational institutions is utilised properly. This work is generally entrusted to its authorised agencies, viz., the inspectors

England had no inspection system in the early stages. It arose in the middle of the nineteenth century when regular financial help began to be given to educational institutions. The inspectors had to see that the grants were properly utilised by educational institutions and standards were maintained. Through such measures the government could satisfy the taxpayer through the Parliament how the money given to Parliament was properly utilised.

In France and Germany, the origin of inspection was much earlier. The schools were state-managed in these countries, and inspectors were needed as *liaison* officers between the schools and the Central Government. Belgium and Netherlands had private as well as state institutions, so the inspectors are *liaison* administrative officers for the former and have to report to government on the efficiency of the latter entitling them to receive state aids. In the United States, the idea of 'inspection' has given way almost entirely to supervision, which is concerned with the improvement of instruction through professional leadership. State supervisors can sometimes recommend the allocation of state aid to certain schools. They may also check the attendance records of schools and their compliance with the laws of compulsory education.¹

¹ UNESCO. *School Inspection*. Paris, 1956. p. 351.

DEVELOPMENTS IN INDIA. — In India, the inspection system had its origin in the early nineteenth century in the Madras presidency. The government had, however, no formal agency for this purpose and the work was entrusted to missionaries who inspected aided schools regularly but the schools had to submit their financial statements to government for approval.¹ Inspection on modern lines was introduced later. In 1843, the Bombay Board of Education divided the whole presidency into three divisions — each under a European inspector and an Indian assistant.² In 1844, the Bengal Council of Education appointed two inspectors of schools and colleges — one for Bengal and the other for Assam.³ In the Uttar Pradesh, a regular system of inspection was introduced in 1849 with a chain-work of officers, viz., a visitor-general for the entire province, a visitor for a district to be assisted by *purgannah* visitors.⁴

The present system of inspection of schools has its origin in India on the recommendation of the Wood's Despatch, according to which "steps were taken to form an education department in each of the great territorial divisions of India as then constituted; and before the end of 1856 the new system was fairly at work." The formation of the separate departments continued over a period about 12 years, from 1854-55 in larger provinces, to 1866-67 in the Hyderabad Assigned Districts. A director of public instruction was appointed for each province. He was to be further assisted by a sufficient number of qualified inspectors with special power of reporting on the state of inspected schools and colleges and of guiding the managers and school masters through their advice in conducting schools and colleges.

The organization of control and inspection remains substantially unchanged to the present day, with such modifications and additions as were required by the creation of new territorial divisions, or by the amalgamation of old ones. The statistics on Table 8 taken from the Report of the Indian Education Commission, 1882-83, give some details regarding the organisation of the education departments in 1881-82:

¹ W. Meston. *Indian Educational Policy* Madras, Christian Lit. Soc., 1936. p. 17.

² S. N. Mukerji. *History of Education in India* Baroda Acharya Book Depot, 1961. p. 106.

³ Richey, J. A. *Selections from Educational Records, Part II*. Calcutta, Government Printing, 1922. pp. 66-67

⁴ S. N. Chaturvedi. *The History of Rural Education* Allahabad, Indian Press Ltd., 1930. p. 73.

TABLE 8

Inspecting Staff, 1881-82

Name of Province	Designation of Inspecting Officers	Number of Inspecting Officers.
Madras ...	{ Inspectors Deputy Inspectors	7 55
Bombay ...	{ Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Assistant Deputy Inspectors	5 30 19
Bengal ...	{ Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Sub-Inspectors	10 43 173
North Western Provinces and Oudh	{ Inspectors Assistant Inspector Deputy Inspectors Sub-Deputy Inspectors	8 1 44 34
Punjab ...	{ Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors District Inspectors and Chief School Mohavirs	7 30
Central Provinces ...	{ Inspector-General Inspectors District and Joint Inspectors	1 3 20
Assam	{ Inspector Deputy Inspectors Sub-Inspectors	1 9 14
Coorg ...	{ Inspector Sub-Deputy Inspector	1 1
Hyderabad Assigned Districts ..	{ Inspector Deputy Inspectors	1 7
Total for India ..	{ Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors Deputy Inspectors Sub-Deputy Inspectors	45 238 241

It will be seen from the above table that the proportion of the inspecting offices was not equitably distributed among the provinces, and this led to heart-burning and the Central Government was accused of partiality. It may be noted that this was a period of centralisation and the sanction of the Central Government was necessary for the increase

of the staff.¹ The Government of India had also not defined any principles for fixing the number of posts for each province. In the light of the recommendations of the Public Services' Commission of 1886 and the Government of India Resolution of July 28, 1896, all the education departments were reorganized and the educational officers were divided into three cadres: (1) Indian Education Service, (2) Provincial Education Service and (3) Subordinate Service.² In 1901-02, the strength of the provincial departments of education was as follows:

TABLE 9
Inspecting Staff, 1901-02.*

Area	Inspectors		Inspectresses	Assistant Inspectors	Deputy or Sub-Assistant or District Inspectors	Sub-deputy Inspectors	Superintendent of Hill Schools	Subordinate Inspectors of Primary Schools
	I.E.S.	P.E.S.						
Madras	5	2	3	9	65	—	6	256
Bombay	3	1	—	—	25	51	—	—
Bengal	5	7	1	6	52	212	—	494
U.P.	3	2	1	8	47	57	—	—
Punjab	2	4	1	8	26	1	—	—
North-West Frontier Province	—	—	—	1	4	—	—	—
Burma	—	—	—	4	38	1	—	169
Central Province	2	1	—	—	29	—	—	—
Assam	—	—	—	—	5	23	8	19
Behar	—	—	—	—	7	2	—	—
Coorg	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Total	21	17	6	26	299	347	14	938

* *Education in India, 1897-98 to 1901-02, Vol. II. p. 5*

In 1919, the I.E.S. was thrown open for recruitment in India and the number of posts in the cadre was increased by 33 per cent. by a transfer of some posts from the P.E.S. Finally, the recruitment to the I.E.S. was stopped in 1924 as a result of the recommendations of the Lee Commission on Superior Civil Services in India.³ Since this abolition, the cadres of educational services in the administration and teaching branches in almost all the states comprise two broad categories, viz., (1) State Educational Services, generally divided into Classes I and II, and (2) Subordinate Educational Services divided into different classes with different scales of pay. The total strength of the directing and inspecting

¹ *Supra.* p. 14.

² *Progress of Education in India, 1927-32, Vol. I. p. 39.*

³ S. N. Mukerji. *History of Education in India. op. cit.*, p. 221.

staff of the entire country during 1956-57 was 934. Its distribution over different branches is given below:

TABLE 10

The Distribution of Directing and Inspecting Staff, 1956-57.*

	Class I	Class II	Unclassified
Men	211	625	836
Women	22	76	98
Total	233	701	934

* *Education in India*, 1956-57 Vol I p 33

The senior inspectors and inspectresses are in some cases in the Provincial Service, Class I, but the main body is in Class II. As the pay and prospects offered to persons of ability are far higher in other branches of government service, men and women, with high qualifications are not being attracted to the Educational Service in sufficient numbers.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF INSPECTION -- Although the nomenclature of the inspectorate staff varies from state to state, the organisation is more or less the same in all the states. A state is generally divided into a certain number of divisions — each consisting of a number of districts. A division is in charge of a divisional inspector or superintendent assisted by a few assistant inspectors. The inspector is responsible in his unit for:

1. The supervision of all primary and social education;
2. The administrative control of all government primary and secondary schools; and
3. The control and inspection of all secondary schools and vocational high schools, training institutions for primary teachers, and such special schools as are under the control of the department.¹

The division is further divided into districts, each under the control of a district inspector and his assistant (deputy or sub-assistant) inspectors. The number of assistant district inspectors depends on the number of *tahsils* or *talukas* in each district. The district educational inspector is responsible to the divisional inspectors. Some of the states have now abolished divisions. In such states, the district educational inspector plays the role of the divisional inspector or superintendent. For the inspection of girls' schools, there is an inspectress for each educational division or for the whole state. In some states, she is assisted by district inspectress.

¹ S. N. Mukerji. *Secondary School Administration*. Baroda, Acharya Book Depot, 1959. p. 31.

Nursery and infant schools, and social (adult) education centres are generally under the control of primary school inspectors. In some states, social education centres are inspected by a special agency. There is no staff for the inspection of independent schools.

In addition to the inspecting staff described above, there are, in several states, various inspecting posts for special purposes. They include inspectors of arts and craft, physical education, audio-visual instruction, technical and vocational education, inspectors of Sanskrit schools, inspectors of European schools, and so on.

Inspection of recognised colleges is carried out by an inspection committee, appointed by the university to which the college is affiliated. The members of the committee are either principals or senior professors. Government colleges for arts and science are also inspected by the Director of Education.

PREROGATIVES AND TECHNICAL DUTIES OF EDUCATIONAL INSPECTORS. — Divisional inspectors have the power of appointing certain categories of teachers, granting them leave and even inflicting punishment including dismissal and transfer. District inspectors are empowered to transfer teachers from one government school to another, when both schools are under their jurisdiction, subject to a report to the division inspector. Assistant and sub-assistant district inspectors have practically no administrative powers.

All inspectors have to write inspection reports of the schools that they inspect; and while some of the states have prescribed forms for this purpose, others are not so rigid. In drafting their reports, the inspectors have to give special consideration to the following: (1) pupil enrolment, (2) scales of tuition-fees, (3) school building, (4) provision for games and physical training, (5) hostel (if any), (6) furniture and equipment, (7) libraries, (8) school records, (9) admissions and promotions, (10) financial stability of the institution, (11) accounts and correspondence files, (12) qualifications and suitability of the teaching staff, (13) provision and standard of instruction, subjects taught, time-table, etc., (14) extra-curricular activities, and (15) discipline of pupils.

Official regulations for the use of inspectors provide certain criteria for the assessment of the work of the teachers. It may be noted that teachers have the right of appeal against the inspector's decisions.

SOME OBSERVATIONS. — The present system of inspection of schools, is however, subjected to severe criticism. The Sadler Commission of 1919 remarked, "Inspection in most cases is hurried and lacking in the friendly suggestions as to methods of teaching and organisation which are the most valuable functions of school inspection."¹ The Hartog

¹ *Calcutta University Commission's Report*, Vol. II. p. 32

Report further observed, "We have referred many times to the absence of an adequate number of well-qualified and experienced inspectors and inspectresses, and to the waste and ineffectiveness in the system of education which we believe to be due, in large part, to that inadequacy."¹ In 1937 the Abbott-Wood Report criticised the policy of educational inspectors being "called upon by authorities other than the department to undertake the control or assist in the direction of work which is not strictly within their sphere."² Commenting on the work of an inspector (of course of U.P.), the First Narendra Deo Report says, "The Educational code makes the inspector's work too mechanical and too much occupied with the routine. The office swallows up the man."³ And finally the Secondary Education Commission remarked, "It was pointed out by several witnesses that inspections were perfunctory, that the time spent by the inspector at any particular place was insufficient, that the greater part of his time was taken out with routine work."⁴

A careful study of the above observations reveals that inspection of our schools is ineffective due to four main causes: (1) dearth of properly trained and well-qualified inspectorial staff; (2) inadequacy of the existing staff; (3) pressure of administrative duties; and (4) lack of adequate guidance to teachers.

To get the right type of man for an inspecting appointment is by no means easy. At the same time, attempts have neither been made to attract the right type of persons to the educational administrative service nor to give them proper professional training. The education departments of different states have called the attention of their respective governments to this serious deterioration. They ascribe this partly to the extinction of the I.E.S. but mainly to the deliberate depression of the status and emoluments of education officers in comparison with those of officers of other all-India and state services. Even the lower ranks of the inspectorate (those of the Subordinate Administrative Service) also have not attracted the best men owing to the fact that terms of that service have not been satisfactory. According to states reports, while the demands on the inspectorate have been increased greatly, their salaries have not increased in proportion to their work. Arrangements are also necessary to provide effective training to educational inspectors by developing short as well as full-length courses for the purpose, organising in-service seminars, conferences and workshops for educational officers, and by instituting suitable systems of apprenticeship under senior officers of the department.

¹ Hartog Committee's Report. p. 292.

² Abbott-Wood Report. p. 31.

³ As quoted by L. Mukherjee. *Problems of Administration of Education in India*. Allahabad, Kitab Mahal, 1960. p. 158.

⁴ Secondary Education Commission's Report. p. 193.

There is also the need for strengthening the inspecting staff. On an average, an inspector inspects about one hundred schools per year and the duration of an inspection varies from one to two days. It is not possible, without serious detriment to the cause of progressive education to continue the work of inspection and administration with the present depleted numbers. It is also true that the inspecting officers are lost in administrative routine work and are not able to scrutinize or help in the teaching work which, after all, is the real function of a school. And this brings us to face a perplexing problem of school inspection, viz., the dual role which a school inspector has to play in this country. He is an administrator and he is also the teacher's counsellor. It is not the least surprising that even the best inspector fails to secure confidence of teachers. Can a teacher really meet as an equal in one, who in certain respects holds power over him?

For overcoming this difficulty, some of the countries in the world appoint two sets of persons — one for administrative purposes and the other for guiding teachers. In the U.S.A., for example, the superintendent is in charge of the first function, while the supervisor takes care of the purely educational aspect of the school's work. In England, Her Majesty's inspectors have no educational prerogatives. In the course of their work, they may, however, offer advice to teachers, headmasters, and managements, but this advice is never a command. On behalf of the Ministry, they organize short refresher courses for teachers, and write pamphlets on educational matters for the use of teachers. But they have no administrative duties as such. Their advice is sought both in day-to-day matters as well as in matters of general policy. In Japan, every board of education has a number of teacher consultants, whose duty it is to guide and give advice to headmasters and to teachers, but who have no power of supervision. They are selected from among such teachers, as hold a first class certificate and who have had at least five years' teaching experience.¹

It will be rather difficult to employ two cadres of officers — counsellor and supervisor — in our country at present. The total strength of the inspecting staff in India at present is less than one thousand persons. With the existing financial resources of the country, it is almost impossible to double the administrative staff for years to come. But cooperation of some other agencies can be sought for giving necessary guidance to schools in their academic work. For example, the staff of teachers' colleges can be used from time to time to observe teaching work in schools and to suggest reforms. Appraisal of schools can also be made by competent private agencies, who can utilise 'Evaluative Criteria' for this purpose.²

¹ UNESCO. *School Inspection*. 1956. pp. 216-17.

² S. N. Mukerji *Secondary School Administration op. cit.* Ch. XXV.

Finally, there is the need of a change of attitude of the inspector to schools and teachers. In this age of democracy, he should regard it his duty to serve as a leader among his co-workers, and not as their dictator. In this connection, the following advice to inspectors by Messrs Abbott and Wood is noteworthy:

The chief duty of an Inspector is to inspect schools. He must do this sympathetically and tactfully and give advice based on his own knowledge and experience which will help the teachers to make their schools enlightened and humane institutions. He should feel free, and of course be qualified, to praise or to criticize; but his criticisms should be calculated to encourage and not to intimidate.¹

CONCLUSION:

Forty years have passed, since education has been accepted as a function of the state. But the states have failed to rise to the occasion. Either the Indian National Congress defined their educational policy or they looked to the Centre for necessary guidance and advice. Yet the long arm of the Central Government has failed to reach the remote corners of the nation.

The states have also failed to show the educational leadership, on which the development of the people depends. Outstanding leadership is most likely to result from a consistent policy and a strong department of education. Our educational policy has not been consistent, and is unfortunately controlled by the policy of the ruling party in the legislature. Ministers must necessarily depend on the support of a majority of the legislative assembly, but it is unfortunate for the cause of education.

It is also generally admitted that if the system of public education in India is to improve, the department of education should be strong. It needs an adequate staff, both in number and quality. The members of the state department of education, freed from petty political controls and interference, and with the esteem of the educators and laymen of the state, can assume leadership of the educational enterprise. Through research, planning, coordination, and leadership (local and state), it is hoped that education would achieve the same status in this country as has been reached in most of the democratic nation of the world today.

¹ *Abbott-Wood Report*. p. 30.

LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND EDUCATION

DR. (SHRIMATI) MADHURI R. SHAH

INTRODUCTION

In most countries of the world, the local bodies which stand at the lowest rung of the ladder of governmental organisation have played, and are still playing, a very important part in the provision of educational facilities, especially those connected with primary education. In India, they are being invested with great powers and responsibilities in the recent drive for democratic decentralisation and are being assigned a pivotal role in the campaign for universal and compulsory education of children of six to eleven years of age, which is one of the most significant and ambitious sociological and human experiments ever undertaken in the educational history of any country. In the course of the Third Five-Year Plan in most of the states of India, the *panchayat raj* would be in operation and thus the local bodies would be a great force in promoting and strengthening education, more particularly at the primary education level.

HOW LOCAL BODIES CAME TO BE ASSIGNED A ROLE IN EDUCATION

In India, the local bodies were assigned a role in education quite early in the history of modern education. This was due to two reasons: the first was the influence of England where the tradition of local control in education has been very strong, partly due to a general opposition to the concept of state intervention in education and partly due to the idea that education is a joint responsibility of the local community and the nation. This is evident from the following observation by Dr. Corlet:

But although regard must be paid to this national aspect of education, the question of administrative efficiency over-rides all other considerations. To put the administration of the service wholly under the central authority would divorce it from local interest and local criticism and would tend to undue uniformity and the suppression of healthy variety of method. In fact, it would be impossible to administer effectively the Education Acts without local knowledge, and therefore the duty of administration is discharged by local authorities which are really the agents of the state.¹

¹ J. Corlet. *A Survey of the Financial Aspects of Elementary Education*. p. 8.

It is but natural that the strong English traditions for the partnership of local bodies in the administration of education should influence educational policies in India and that local bodies should be entrusted with a share in the administration of education.

There was another reason, and probably the more important than the one referred to above, for assigning a share to local bodies in India in the administration of education. It was political. Even as early as 1880, educated Indian opinion was becoming conscious of its rights and the seeds of a struggle for political freedom had already begun to be seen. Indians were demanding the right to rule themselves and this demand had to be met to some extent at least. Naturally, the British Government found it convenient to make a beginning at the lowest rung of the official ladder and to transfer such functions only to Indian control as were politically innocuous. The first step in this direction was taken by organising institutions for *local self-government* in which Indians were given a hand and by including primary education within the sphere of their duties. With the passage of time, this tradition which had begun on purely political grounds, became stronger on educational and other considerations and continued to hold the field even after the initial political considerations had ceased to operate, with the transfer of education to Indian control or the attainment of independence. Today, a stage has been reached when, because of other considerations such as ensuring economy and efficiency in community development and National Extension Service Projects, it is felt very necessary to entrust the entire general administration and development of a district or sub-division to local bodies, and the administration of education, especially primary education, would be more closely and effectively associated with local bodies at different levels.

But they have not attained the present position of strength and great significance without passing through anxious periods which almost threatened them with a large-scale curtailment of their powers in education. Larger powers over primary education were first transferred to the local bodies by the reformed legislature constituted under the Government of India Act, 1919. This led to an official reaction to the contrary, and as early as in 1929, the Hartog Committee was of the opinion that the powers of the provincial governments in education were "reduced too much by a devolution on local bodies which has taken the control of primary education to a large extent out of their hands, with unfortunate results," and recommended that "the relations between the provincial governments and local bodies demanded further consideration and adjustment."¹ Fifteen years later, practically the same view was expressed by the Central Advisory Board of Education but

¹ *Hartog Report*. pp. 346-47.

in a language which was stronger than that of the Hartog Committee. The *Plan for Post-War Educational Development* (Sargent Report) observed that "a great mistake was made when the administration of education, particularly in the lower stages was handed over to local bodies."¹ Since 1929, therefore, attempts have been made in some states to withdraw the powers previously given to local bodies.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION. — Local bodies are now being assigned a very important role in programmes of community development including the administration of education in the lower stages. But before we consider in detail the ways in which the local bodies can play a part of great importance in the spread of universal compulsory primary education and social education, we will have a short review of the historical background of the role of local bodies in education.

THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN EDUCATION (1813-82). — In urban areas, the British officials created municipal administration primarily for the purposes of sanitation, roads and lighting, rather than education. That is why, the early municipalities had nothing to do with education and could not legally incur any expenditure for educational purposes. It was only towards the end of this period that they were permitted to assign funds for educational purposes. But it was not obligatory on them to incur such expenditure nor was any minimum contribution to education was prescribed by law.

In rural areas, however, the position was entirely different and here the idea of levying rates for educational purposes was entertained right from the start and education was always the principal object in the levy of all local rates. As can be anticipated, the inspiration in this matter came from England, where the proposal to levy local rates for educational purposes was put forward as early as 1816 when Mr. Brougham brought a bill before the House of Commons for the purpose of making education compulsory. But the idea was so revolutionary and new that it met with very strong opposition and had to be dropped for the time being. The principle of levying a local rate for education was accepted in England under the Elementary Education Act of 1870 only. It was natural that this controversy should have its effect in India as well. In India, between 1839 and 1857 British officers like Lt. Davidson, the Assistant Superintendent of the Deccan Survey, Mr. Thomason, the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Province, Captain Wingate, the Revenue Survey Commissioner of Bombay, M. Howard, the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay proposed the levy of local rates for educational purposes. But,

¹ *Sargent Report*. p. 89.

owing probably to the controversies in England, the Secretary of State for India was not able to make up his mind on the issue. Only the Despatch of 1859 made the Government of India finally decide on the levy of local rates.¹ And the work of imposing local rates for education on the basis of the universal tax on land revenue was carried out in all provinces except Bengal in the decade 1861-71.

In the case of the municipalities, as stated earlier, the local bodies were first created for purposes of sanitation, roads, lighting, etc., and permission to incur expenditure on education was accorded later. In the rural areas, the development was the other way round. The levy of local rates for educational and other purposes was the first step and as a consequence thereof, government considered the further question of creating local bodies to administer their proceeds. Accordingly, the Acts which authorised the levy of local rates also instituted local bodies to participate in the administration of their proceeds. These bodies were not *local* in the ordinary sense of vesting authority in the Indian people of the locality. They were *local* in purely *administrative sense*, because they vested some authority in the local European officers and reduced, to some extent, the necessity of reporting to government for orders.

On the issue of division of authority between government and local bodies in educational matters, the position was far from happy throughout this period. Centralisation was the dominant note. Very few powers over education were delegated to the local bodies in practice. The usual bureaucratic tendencies also led to the same result because of officials of this period preferred to keep powers in their own hands rather than transfer them to the local bodies which had some semblance of democratic and non-official character.

THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN EDUCATION (1882-1918). Till 1882, two important events occurred simultaneously. The first was the *Resolution on Local Self-Government* issued by Lord Ripon, and the second was the series of recommendations by the *Indian Education Commission* to the effect that local bodies should be given more powers and autonomy in educational matters. These led to several changes, the more important of which may be summarised as follows:

1. The accounts of expenditure in urban areas came to be separated from those in rural areas and that the municipalities were compelled by law to contribute their due share of educational expenditure. Prior to 1881-82, the municipalities did not contribute their proper share to educational expenditure because the law merely permitted them to incur expenditure on education and did not make any minimum contribution obligatory.

¹ Stanley's Despatch. paras. 51 and 52.

2. The income from the local rates in rural areas came to form a *fund* and kept distinct from the revenues of the provincial governments. The advantage of 'funding' the local rates was that an unspent balance at the end of a year did not lapse to government, but was available for educational expenditure by the boards in subsequent years.

3. Prior to 1882, the boards were incurring expenditure on primary as well as higher education from their funds. The Indian Education Commission recommended that "primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction, which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education."¹ This recommendation was accepted by government, although in practice some latitude had to be allowed to local bodies who were keen on providing higher education in their areas.

4. Prior to 1870, it was an open question whether grants should or should not be given to local bodies on account of the educational expenditure incurred by them. But the controversy was finally settled by Lord Mayo who declared that the local bodies were entitled to claim a grant-in-aid from provincial revenue on account of their educational expenditure.² This policy was supported by the Indian Education Commission and generally came to be accepted in all provinces at least in theory.

5. The Indian Education Commission also recommended that larger powers should be transferred to local bodies and that they should be given a more effective voice in the administration of primary education. This recommendation of the Commission was generally accepted by the provincial government and an attempt was made to transfer larger educational powers to local bodies than in the past.

The comprehensive recommendation made by the Indian Education Commission synchronised, as stated previously, with Lord Ripon's Resolution on the general development of local self-government institutions in India. Consequently a new page was turned in 1882 in the history of the role of local bodies in Indian education. Hence forward, the provincial governments were committed to three main lines of policy: (a) democratisation and development of local bodies, (b) the payment of larger and adequate grant-in-aid, and (c) the transfer of larger powers to them in educational matters.

If the Resolution of Lord Ripon and the recommendations of the Indian Education Commission had been followed in spirit as well as in letter, a fairly large devolution of authority ought to have been made immediately after 1882. But the provincial govern-

¹ *Hunter Commission's Report* p. 175.

² Vide Lord Mayo's circular No. 60 of 11-2-1871 quoted by Nurullah and Naik in their *History of Education in India during British Period*. Bombay, Macmillan, 1947. p. 362.

ments whittled down these recommendations to a large extent and the district officers and their subordinates whittled them down still further. Consequently, the little progress could be made and not much of real authority came to be transferred between 1883 and 1918.

THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN EDUCATION (1919-1929). — The unsatisfactory state of affairs did attract much attention. The Decentralisation Commission of 1909 recommended that larger powers should be delegated to local bodies.¹ Between 1910 and 1912 Gokhale agitated to the effect that the initiative in introducing compulsory primary education should be left to the local bodies.² A third force which helped the same movement was the Montagu-Chelmsford Report of 1918 which stressed very greatly the development of local bodies in India. Consequently, a new page in the history of local bodies was opened with the passage of the Government of India Act, 1919, under which, both education and local-self government were classified as transferred subjects and placed under the control of Indian ministers.

Under this changed pattern of administration, three important trends soon became manifest. The first was the emphasis on the expansion of primary education, on the introduction of universal, compulsory and free primary education and on the spread of literacy among the adults. The second was the attempt to democratise local bodies, to give them larger resources, to guarantee to them their legitimate internal freedom of action, and to free them as much as possible from external control. And the third was to make the local bodies responsible for the administration of primary education and for the introduction and enforcement of compulsion. Between 1918 and 1930, therefore, Primary Education Acts were passed in all the provinces of British India.³ The Acts provided for introduction of compulsory primary education and transferred far larger powers over the administration of primary education to local bodies than at any time in the past. The years between 1918 and 1929 may be considered as a hay day in the history of the relationship of local bodies to education.

As often happens in life, the downgrade movement starts soon after the highest point is reached. In the same way, a reaction to the above development began very early and even within this decade itself, a view grew up which felt that the recent devolution of authority to the local bodies was excessive and that many of the powers now transferred

¹ *Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India (1897-1902)*, Vol. I. pp. 108-114.

² D. M. Desai. *Universal Compulsory and Free Primary Education in India*. Bombay, Indian Institute of Education, 1953, p. 89.

³ *Ibid.* p. 168.

to them ought to be withdrawn in the interests of education. Some of the arguments advanced on both sides are given below, as they are still being put forward when the role of local bodies in education is considered.

Arguments in support of the delegation of authority:

1. Such delegation of authority is democratic and desirable as it leads to decentralisation;
2. Such delegation would bring a greater sense of local responsibility which would ultimately help the progress of primary education;
3. The services of education was just as suitable as other services for extensive devolution on which local authorities could practice their 'prentice' hands and learn, by making their own mistakes;¹
4. The national gain by way of greater interest and sense of responsibility from letting local authorities manage education, even if at first they did it badly, would outweigh the national loss, arising from delay in spreading literacy and other benefits of education and the continued or increased waste of public money;²
5. The 'mistakes' which local authorities would make would be due to inexperience rather than to any deficiency in that sense of trusteeship and guardianship of public interests essential to good local administration;³ and
6. Even the most important financial objection that the local bodies had no adequate resources for the task was ruled out on the ground that it could be met by liberal grants from the provincial revenues.

Argument against the delegation of authority:

1. Primary education is essentially a "nation building" service in a country like India, where the early liquidation of mass illiteracy was a condition precedent to the creation of an enlightened electorate. It was, therefore, argued that the provincial and the central governments must remain responsible for primary education;
2. The local bodies do not have the resources to finance universal primary education and that their inexperience in administration would inevitably lead to mistakes and malpractices, which would ultimately hinder the progress of mass education itself;
3. Even the successful functioning of local bodies will depend upon the extent to which the people are educated and trained in democratic methods; and
4. It would be a grave error to create powerful local bodies in conditions where the people were neither educated nor accustomed to democratic methods, and to leave them to administer primary education which was of such vital importance to national well-being.

¹ *Report of the Hartog Committee*, p. 309.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ *Loc. cit.*

The Hartog Committee did not endorse the arguments supporting delegation of authority to local bodies. It pointed out that the delegation of authority to local bodies made between 1918 and 1928 was based on wrong assumptions. The Committee also felt that the delegation of authority had been excessive and that local bodies had not properly exercised the new powers given to them. It, therefore, recommended that at least some of the powers delegated to local bodies should be withdrawn.

THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN EDUCATION (1930-1950).—The recommendations of the Hartog Committee which was generally opposed to excessive delegation of authority to local bodies, came to influence both the official and non-official opinions in India to a very large extent. Attempts thereafter began to be made in different provinces to withdraw the powers already delegated to local bodies. The State of Bombay under the leadership of the late Sri B. G. Kher, the then Education Minister, gave a lead in this matter. A committee, appointed by the Central Advisory Board under Sri Kher's chairmanship also recommended the withdrawal of powers from local bodies. The Bombay Primary Education Act that was amended in 1938 withdrew from the local bodies the powers regarding inspection. It made the administrative officers of the school boards government servants and the control over teachers which was formerly with the boards was transferred to administrative officers. The Report on Post-war Plan for Educational Development in India also recommended that the provincial governments would be well-advised to resume all educational powers from local bodies except where they were functioning efficiently.¹

The new Bombay Primary Education Act that was passed in 1947 cut down the powers of the boards still further.² The new Primary Education Act passed in Assam also relieved the local bodies of the responsibilities of managing and financing primary education and vested its administration in an independent body consisting of the state D.P.L., three representatives of legislative assembly, one representative of the legislative council and a secretary appointed by the government.³

Thus, towards the end of the period under review, the tendency on the part of state governments to withdraw powers and control of primary education from local bodies was generally gaining strength. This was strongly resented and considerably opposed by them. The following extract from the *memorandum* submitted by the Bihar Government

¹ *Sargent Report*, p. 89.

² Vide, Sections 23 and 24 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

³ *Report of the Committee on the Relationship between State Governments and local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education*. Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1954, pp. 24-25.

At the 18th meeting of the Central Advisory Board Education held at Trivendrum in January 1951 throws light on the feelings of state governments and local bodies on the role of the latter in education:

In paras 7 and 8 of Chapter XII of the Report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post-War Educational Development in India (Sargent Committee's Report), it has been categorically stated that the state governments should forthwith, resume all educational powers and that in order to retain local interest, school boards for smaller areas may be set up where some people with the requisite knowledge, enthusiasm, integrity and standing are available; the members of those boards should be nominated by the state education department and their powers should in no case include any control over the appointment, promotion, transfer or dismissal of teachers.

On principle the adoption of this recommendation will be highly desirable for the future development of education in the various states. But in practice even the partial withdrawal of the powers from the district boards has led to considerable opposition from local bodies on the ground that the state government will thus be acting against the salutary principle of decentralising the administration of education. Also, the history of the fight of local bodies with previous government for increased autonomy has created a mentality of severe opposition to any assumption of powers of these bodies by state governments.

The Bihar Government suggested that a committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education be appointed to examine the question of the relationship between state governments and local bodies in respect of the administration of primary education. Thus the Kher Committee on "the Relationship between State Governments and Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education" came to be appointed by the C.A.B.E. in 1951. The recommendations of the committee will be referred to in proper context in the subsequent sections.

The Kher Committee of the C.A.B.E. referred to in the preceding paragraph critically analysed the existing relation between state governments and local bodies in respect of the role of the latter in the administration of primary education. The Committee made some very important recommendations and ended the controversy regarding the desirability of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education by recommending in emphatic terms that, in the interest of mass education and in view of the Constitutional directive on universal, compulsory and free primary education, all types of local bodies should be made to shoulder responsibility for education. Other important recommendations of the Committee will be considered in a subsequent section.

while discussing some of the basic issues arising out of the study of the role that local bodies in some of our states are playing at present.

THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN EDUCATION AFTER INDEPENDENCE

INTRODUCTION. — Though in 1952, the Kher Committee, referred to earlier, recommended that local bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education, local bodies in some states, especially in some Part B and Part C states were not entrusted with a share in the administration of education. Some other recommendations of the Committee were not universally adopted by states. It would be interesting to consider briefly the position of local bodies in the administration of primary education in their areas in post-independence period.

ASSOCIATION WITH THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Excepting the Assam State and Jammu and Kashmir State, in other states of India, local bodies have been entrusted with the major responsibility in the administration of primary education in their areas. Reference was made earlier to the Assam Primary Education Act under which all powers from local bodies in respect of primary education were withdrawn. In Jammu and Kashmir State there are no such local bodies as municipal school boards, town area school committees and district school boards. In the present states of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore, Andhra Pradesh, there are some merged areas of the some former Part B and Part C states. Local bodies in those areas were either non-existent or were not entrusted with the responsibility of administering education. Consequently, after the reorganisation of states in 1956, and in the case of the newly formed states of Gujarat and Maharashtra in the areas of the former merged Part B or Part C states, education is administered by the state government. This is the position in Saurashtra and Cutch regions of Gujarat State, Marathwada region of Maharashtra State, the Madhya Bharat, Vindhya Pradesh and Bhopal regions of Madhya Pradesh and in the ex-Mysore area, Hyderabad—Karnatak area and Coorg area of the existing Mysore State.

TYPES OF LOCAL BODIES ASSOCIATED WITH THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION. — In most of the states all municipalities, whether they are big or small, have authority under law to administer primary education in their areas. In the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra which are newly carved out of the old bilingual Bombay State, only the bigger municipalities are authorised to administer primary education in their areas; the smaller municipalities pay for their share of the cost of primary education but have no voice in their management. Some of the municipalities in some states also run secondary schools and colleges. For instance, some of the municipalities in Uttar Pradesh run intermediate colleges and one of them have even a degree college under its management.

PERCENTAGE OF RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS RUN BY LOCAL BOARDS AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO THE TOTAL STATE EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

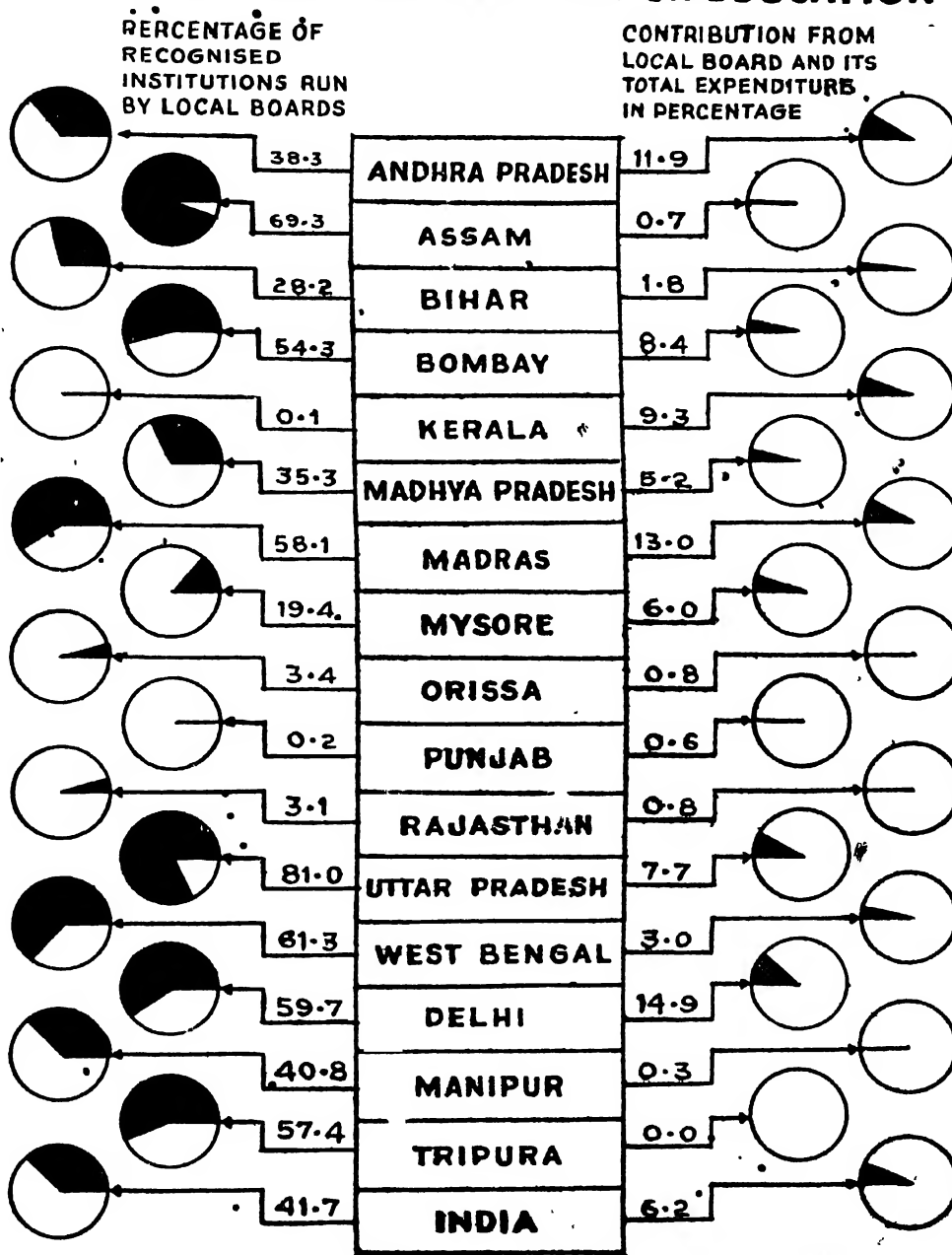


CHART 7

In 1956-57, 3.4 per cent of the total number of secondary schools in the country were conducted by municipalities. In the State of Gujarat and in the State of Maharashtra, some municipalities run secondary schools.

In the non-municipal areas, i.e., rural areas, district boards are invested with the responsibility of administration of primary education. Some of them also conduct secondary schools. In 1956-57 as many as 11,128 secondary schools (30.7 per cent) were managed by district boards. The percentage was the highest (58.8 per cent) in Bombay State; Andhra Pradesh came next to Bombay with 46.9 per cent. In the states of Madras, Mysore, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, the percentage was more than 30. Among major states, Kerala had the lowest percentage (4.6 per cent). The levels at which the local body is associated with the administration of primary education are not the same in every state. In fact, one to four tier systems of local bodies exist in states. In the Vidarbha area of the Maharashtra State and the Mahakoshal region of Madhya Pradesh one tier system is in existence. In the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra (in the districts of the Bombay State prior to state reorganisation), Andhra Pradesh (excepting the Telangana area), Madras, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Mysore (in the old Bombay-Karnatak area), a two tier system of local bodies with a district school board at the district level and the village *panchayat* as the lower unit is functioning. The democratic decentralisation measures in Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan have created *panchayat samitis* in block areas and *zilla parishads* in non-*samiti* areas which have besides others, responsibility in primary education. Similar democratic decentralisation measures are also contemplated in other states. This would be referred to later on.

Orissa has a three-tier system with district boards, local boards, and *gram panchayats* as the local bodies administering primary education. In Bihar, a four tier system with a district board at a district level, a local board a taluka or a sub-division of a district level, a union board or a committee for a fairly large group of villages and a village *panchayat* for a small group of villages is in operation.

This is in short the position in different states as regards the types of local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.

INDEPENDENT or DEPENDENT SCHOOL BOARDS. — In most of the Indian states, the parent body—the district board in rural areas and the municipal board in urban areas elect an education committee called 'School Committee' or 'School Board' which is made responsible to look after and provide for educational facilities in their areas. In many of the states, these specialised committees or boards are dependent on the parent body and their budget is decided by the parent body. In the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra, which

have inherited the administrative pattern and procedures of the old Bombay State, however, the district school boards are independent of district local boards but not the municipal school boards. The municipal school boards exercise all the educational powers of the parent body and enjoy autonomy in almost all matters except those which involve finance. In West Bengal, school boards of local boards have all powers except in matters of inspection and training of teachers which are the functions of the state government. As regards the municipal school board the position is similar to that in Gujarat and Maharashtra. The education committees of school boards or union committees in other states are subject to the control of the parent body.

APPOINTMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS — In states where delegation of authority to education committees or school boards is small and where the administrative work in respect of educational functions transferred to such education committees or school boards is not much and complex, administrative officers are not appointed. But in the case of larger municipalities where the volume of the administrative work is considerable and complex, there is a clear case for the appointment of administrative officers. This is exactly the case in the old Bombay State districts of the new Gujarat and Maharashtra states. In Madhya Pradesh, there is no statutory obligation for municipalities to appoint administrative officers and in the case of the *janpada sabha* the sub-divisional officer is the chief executive officer. Under the Madras Elementary Education Act, the appointment of administrative officers, called education officers, is not obligatory but permissible. In Punjab, no separate administrative officers are appointed in case of district boards, but powers are delegated to government education inspectors. In West Bengal also the appointment of the administrative officers is not obligatory under the State Primary Education Act. It would thus be seen that the practice of appointing an administrative officer is not universal in all states, but then in many of them a whole-time trained official is put in the charge of the administrative work of the school board in respect of primary education. In some parts there still exists the unhappy practice of requiring honorary non-officials to look after the administration of primary education.

INSPECTION. — The modern trend is to make the state responsible for the inspection of primary schools. Except in the case of Greater Bombay and the municipal boards of Uttar Pradesh, inspection of primary schools run by local bodies is done by the inspecting officers of the state education department. In Bihar and Punjab, inspection of boards' schools are done by government inspecting officers, but unlike in other states, the inspecting officers are also open to the control of local bodies also.

RECRUITMENT AND THE CONTROL OF TEACHING STAFF. — In most of our states, local bodies are either given full powers to employ and control their teaching staff or are

associated with recruitment and control of teaching staff. In the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra, under Section 23 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, a staff selection committee consisting of the educational inspector of the district, the chairman of the school board and the administrative officer, is provided for every district school board or authorised municipality. In Madhya Pradesh, the *janapada sabhas* are merely deliberative bodies and consequently have very little to do with the recruitment of teaching staff. In those states or regions where local bodies are not vested with the responsibility of administration of education, the recruitment and control of the teaching staff is done by the state government.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS. — The modern view is that the training of teachers should be an exclusive responsibility of the state government. A local body may, if it likes, conduct training institutions for their teachers, but in that case, it should be given grant-in-aid by the state government. In 1956-57 out of the total 916 training schools in the country, state governments conducted 536 (58.5 per cent) and the local bodies managed 16 (1.8 per cent). Of the 16 training schools conducted by local bodies, 11 were in Assam, 2 were in Punjab and one each in Bombay, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The share of local bodies in direct expenditure on teachers' training schools in 1956-57 was 0.4 per cent.

SYLLABUS AND TEXT-BOOKS. — In India, the syllabi or courses of study are prescribed by the state government and the local bodies have to follow them in the schools run by them. In some states, however, the local bodies are permitted, with the previous approval of the state director of education, to introduce changes to suit local conditions.

As regards text-books, they are as a rule either prescribed or prepared by the state government and the local bodies have to follow them. In states like Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madras and others, the text-books once selected by a local body cannot be changed within a period of two or three years.

GRANT-IN-AID TO LOCAL BODIES. — Broadly speaking, municipalities are treated alike for the purposes of state grant-in-aid to them. In Madhya Pradesh, all municipalities earn a grant of 50 per cent for all approved expenditure in excess of 6½ per cent of their total revenue. In Bihar too, similar is the case. But in states like Gujarat and Maharashtra, all municipalities are not treated alike for grant-in-aid. For instance, the Bombay Corporation and the corporations of Poona and Sholapur get respectively a grant of 25 per cent and 33.3 per cent of their total expenditure on voluntary education. In case of the Bombay Corporation a ceiling is put at the total grant of Rs. 25 lakhs. Poona and Sholapur corporations earn 50 per cent grants on the additional expenditure they

incur on primary education. In Gujarat State, Ahmedabad Corporation, is given a grant-in-aid of 25 per cent of the total approved expenditure for voluntary education. Municipalities like Surat get 33·3 per cent grant for voluntary education, and like other authorised municipalities earn a grant of 50 per cent of the additional expenditure on compulsory education. All the authorised municipalities in these two states get a grant-in-aid at 50 per cent of their approved expenditure both for voluntary and compulsory education.

Grant-in-aid to local boards is on a different footing. Rural areas being poor and their economic capacities being limited, district boards in most of the states are given larger grant-in-aid than the municipalities. In states like Gujarat and Maharashtra about 96 per cent of the expenditure of district school boards are met by government.

CRITICISM ABOUT THE PRESENT ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES

INTRODUCTION. — Local bodies are frequently criticised for their inadequate and ineffective role in the administration of primary education. Charges usually made against them can be classified under the three main heads, viz. (1) finance, (2) administrative staff and (3) the selection and control of primary teachers. We will briefly consider these three types of charges one by one.

FINANCE. — It is often alleged that the resources of local bodies to finance programmes of primary education are inadequate with the result that the progress of primary education has been hampered by its delegation to local bodies. The scales of pay of the employees of local bodies are generally lower than those of government servants having comparable qualifications. Even the pay scales of primary teachers vary from one local body to another. The local bodies are frequently criticised for not paying the primary teachers under them their salaries regularly every month.

This unfortunate situation has arisen due to the adoption of a wrong policy on the part of some state governments. The principle of decentralisation of executive authority for primary education should be accepted and effectively put into practice by state governments. Democratic decentralisation is a step in this direction. But decentralisation of primary education should be accompanied by the centralisation of the financial responsibility involved. Both the central and state governments should bear the ultimate responsibility for primary education and should assist local bodies with adequate grant-in-aid to carry on the functions entrusted to them. The discrepancy in the pay scales of primary teachers employed by local bodies and government servants of comparable qualifications can be removed by abolishing all distinctions in respect of pay scales, pro-

vident fund, gratuity and service conditions between the government servants and those having comparable qualifications doing similar work under local bodies.

Thus, the charges levelled against the local bodies are mainly due to inadequacy of their finance. They can be met by centralising the ultimate financial responsibility in respect of primary education on the central and state governments and providing an adequate grant-in-aid to local bodies to discharge their functions.

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF. — The second category of charges levelled against local bodies concerns their administrative staff. It is alleged that most of our local bodies do not have a well-trained and competent administrative staff to deal effectively with the varied and complex problems of primary education. This position can be improved by placing the administrative staff of local bodies for primary education on the same footing in respect of salary and status with its other employees of a similar category, by providing them a cadre of well-trained and efficient executive officers and key administrative personnel and by making provision for the training of the administrative staff.

PRIMARY TEACHERS. — The three charges frequently made against local bodies in India are: (1) there are many influences at work in local bodies and the arrangements regarding recruitment and transfer of teachers are not satisfactory; (2) the discipline of teachers become slack under local control as they tend to become more interested in pleasing the members of the board rather than in teaching children, and (3) teachers are often used for the purposes of election.

The first charge can be met with by adopting the Bombay practice of providing staff selection committee for every school board, consisting of the district education officer (who acts as the chairman), the chairman of the school board and the administrative officer of the board who acts as the secretary. In case of the municipal corporations, powers of recruitment can be invested in the municipal commissioner who will make appointments in accordance with well-defined rules and practices. Transfer committees to decide the transfer of primary teachers employed by the local body can also be constituted on the lines of the staff selection committee. This would eliminate the members of a local body interfering in matters of transfer of its primary teachers. The present discipline of primary teachers can be improved by strengthening the position of the chief executive officer of the school board and by securing the cooperation of the members of the board in refraining from doing any thing that could weaken the discipline among primary teachers or other subordinate staff.

SOME BASIC ISSUES CONCERNING THE ROLE OF LOCAL BODIES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

We will conclude our discussion of the role of local bodies in education by considering some basic issues involved in the re-patterning of this function.

LEVELS AT WHICH LOCAL BODIES ARE NECESSARY. — We saw in an earlier section that one to four tier systems of local bodies are in operation in different parts of the country. It is necessary to decide upon a common pattern which can be adopted by states with necessary modifications to suit local conditions and needs. A lead in this respect is given by the Balwantrai Mehta Committee on democratic decentralisation. The Committee has recommended "devolution of powers to a body which...will have the entire charge of all development work within its jurisdiction...the government...reserving to itself the functions of guidance, supervision and higher planning; and where necessary providing extra finance." The Committee suggested that "the jurisdiction of the proposed local body should be neither so large as to defeat the very purpose for which it is created, not so small as to militate against efficiency and economy." The Committee felt that the district was too a large unit of administration for the people to take "personal interest and to make sacrifices for common good." It, therefore, recommended that the block was a suitable unit of administration; and proposed the establishment of a local body at the block level called the *panchayat samiti* which was to be indirectly elected by the village *panchayat*, some representation being given also to municipalities and cooperative organisations within the block and assigned specific functions and revenues. The Mehta Committee felt that with the devolution of development functions on the *panchayat samiti*, the district board or any other executive body at the district level would become superfluous. It, therefore, recommended the setting up of a *zilla parishad* at the district level which would function as a coordinating body. According to the Mehta Committee, the *zilla parishad* should have power to approve the annual budget of each *panchayat samiti* in its jurisdiction, to consolidate and forward to government the demands for grants of the blocks, to distribute funds allotted by the government among the blocks, to coordinate the block plans and to guide the *samiti's* activities. The Mehta Committee envisages a three-tier system of decentralisation, namely the village *panchayat*, the *panchayat samiti* and the *zilla parishad*.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee has convincingly made out a case for adopting the block as a basic unit of administration and charging the *panchayat samiti* at this level with the responsibility of maintaining primary schools. There are several advantages in adopting the block as a primary unit of administration, the most striking of them are: (1) the block is the suitable level at which the functions of constructing school buildings

can be assigned; (2) the construction of school buildings can be better organised through the block advisory committee than from the district level; (3) the functions of supervision of primary schools and the supply of equipment to schools can also be more conveniently entrusted at the block level; (4) the administration of primary education would be brought closer to people and the difficult problems of ensuring local interest and cooperation in increasing enrolment of children of compulsory age and retaining them in schools till they complete the period of compulsory education would be more satisfactorily dealt with. The *panchayat samiti* at the block level would function as an intermediary body between the village *panchayat* and the district body.

The Mehta Committee envisaged that village *panchayat* would continue to play its present role in a development programme including education within its jurisdiction. There are also several advantages in associating the village *panchayat* in the administration of primary education, the main being the following:

1. The recent trend all over the world is to make the primary school a community centre. The local community can be associated with the primary school through its representatives on the village *panchayat*;
2. The association of the local community with the primary school becomes an important project in social education;
3. It is an effective instrument in engendering enthusiasm in local community for universal compulsory and free primary education for their children;
4. Recent experiments in some states like Madras show that the enthusiasm and support of local community for equipping local schools and even providing free mid-day meals to poor children can be secured through this measure.

This would lead us to suggest that the village *panchayat* will continue to function, as it does in most of the states in India, as a unit of administration of primary education at the lowest level.

The district has been a unit of administration ever since 1880 when Lord Ripon introduced the great experiment of local self-government. The recent trend is against retaining the district as the basic unit for the administration of primary education. The expansion of primary education in recent years has been so tremendous and rapid that it is impossible for the executive officer and the administrative personnel of a district board to keep in touch with the schools or teachers in his district and for the deputy educational inspector to supervise and control the primary schools of his district. The western practices and experiences are also against making a big district a unit of administration. However, it would not be advantageous to do away altogether with the

district as a unit of administration. It will be recalled that the Mehta Committee has recommended a coordinating body at the district level called the *zilla parishad*. This would be a good substitute for the present set-up of administration at the district level. It would also be interesting to refer briefly to the progress of democratic decentralisation in different states of our country.¹

In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the *panchayat samiti* is set up at the block level. It is named differently as the *anachalik panchayat* in Assam, the block *panchayat* board in Jammu and Kashmir, the block committee in Maharashtra, the *janpad sabha panchayat* in Madhya Pradesh, the *panchayat* union council in Madras and the *kshettra samiti* in Uttar Pradesh. The taluka development board in Mysore and the proposed *taluka panchayat* in Gujarat are bodies at the taluka level. The *panchayat samiti* in Punjab is formed either at the *tehsil* level or at the block level. The *panchayat samitis* are statutory executive corporate bodies except in the case of Jammu and Kashmir, where they are purely advisory.

The *zilla parishad* in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the *zilla panchayat* in Madhya Pradesh, the district development council in Madras, Maharashtra and Mysore, the proposed district *panchayat* in Gujarat, are bodies at the district level and the recommended district council in Maharashtra. The *mohkuma parishad* in Assam is for a sub-division for a district when there are no sub-divisions. These bodies are purely advisory, co-ordinating and supervisory in character except in Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and the proposed set-up in Gujarat. The *zilla parishad* in Andhra Pradesh is entrusted with additional responsibilities of establishing and maintaining secondary, vocational and industrial schools. The *zilla parishad* in Uttar Pradesh has also executive functions relating to junior high schools, the proposed district *panchayat* in Gujarat and the district council in Maharashtra are executive corporate bodies.

It appears that in West Bengal and Kerala, no action has been taken on democratic decentralisation as recommended by the Mehta Committee. We will now consider the main functions of the village *panchayat*, the *panchayat samiti* and the body at the district level in respect of primary education.

FUNCTIONS OF THE VILLAGE PANCHAYAT. — The following are the generally suggested functions of the village *panchayat* in respect of primary education:

1. To assist the *panchayat samitis* in the preparation and implementation of plans for the development of primary education in their areas;

¹ The information given here is based mainly of the brochure "Legislations on Panchayat Raj (A Comparative Study), Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation, Government of India, October 1960.

2. To provide adequate accomodation and equipment for local primary schools;
3. To carry out the current repairs of the school building and if directed by the *panchayat samiti*, to carry out special repairs and to construct new buildings;
4. To exercise such supervision over the local primary schools as may be prescribed or may be directed by the *panchayat samiti* by a general or special order;
5. To be responsible for the enforcement of compulsory attendance in the village in accordance with the rules and regulations prescribed for the purpose and general or special directions of state government and the *panchayat samiti*;
6. Subject to the funds at its disposal, to provide poor children with slates, books, clothes and other educational equipment;
7. To be responsible for the proper management of the school fund;
8. To provide play grounds and school gardens and to maintain them with the assistance of the pupils and the staff of the schools;
9. To make provision for drinking water and other necessary amenities required by school children;
10. To make provision, wherever possible for mid-day meals to poor and under-nourished children;
11. To make provision for school uniforms; and
12. To celebrate school functions and to organize excursions or other social and cultural programmes in accordance with the instructions that may be issued by government or the *panchayat samiti* from time to time.¹

FUNCTIONS OF THE PANCHAYAT SAMITI. — As mentioned earlier, the *panchayat samiti* is envisaged to function as an intermediary body between the village *panchayat* at the lowest level and the district council or the *zilla parishad* at the district level. A study of the functions assigned to the *panchayat samiti* in Rajasthan would give us an idea of the role that the *panchayat samiti* can play in education.

Rajasthan is the first state in India to have launched the experiment of democratic decentralisation in October 1959 under the Rajasthan *Panchayat Samiti and Zilla Parishad Act*, 1959. The whole state is divided into 232 blocks and shadow blocks² and a *panchayat samiti* is constituted for each block. The following items were made over to the *panchayat samiti*:

1. Primary schools including schools run for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes by the Social Welfare Department;

¹ *Vide-Working Papers of the Regional Seminars on Compulsory Primary Education*, prepared by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1959-60.

² An area which will be ultimately covered by a block but not covered to-day.

2. Conversion of primary schools into basic pattern;
3. Scholarships and stipends to members of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes,¹
4. Establishment of information, community recreation centres;
5. Establishment of youth organisations;
6. Establishment of rural libraries; and
7. Adult centres.

As regards the finances of the *panchayat samitis* who are to discharge statutory functions, the state government would bear the cost of primary education During the third five-year plan period; however, the state government would pay teachers' salary and allowances while the contingent and non-recurring expenditure will be shared by the state government and the *panchayat samiti* on 50 per cent basis.²

The working paper on the Regional Seminars on Compulsory Primary Education organised by the Union Ministry of Education in 1959-60, has provided more detailed guide lines about the desirable functions to be delegated at the block level.³ A school committee at the district level was envisaged in the working paper, which would constitute the unit of administration of primary education at the district level.

1. To assist the district school committee in conducting and revising educational surveys and preparing and implementing five-year plans for the development of primary education and all other educational activities entrusted to it,
2. To provide adequate accommodation and equipment for primary schools;
3. To open new primary schools in places where they are needed,
4. To determine the exact location of primary schools,
5. To supervise the working of all primary schools and of such other educational institutions under the control of the district school committee as may be decided from time to time;
6. To exercise such powers over the staff employed in primary schools and other educational institutions under the control of the district school committee as may be delegated to it from time to time;
7. To supervise the activities of the village school committees, to ensure that each *village panchayat* pays its contributions to the school fund, and generally to guide them to maintain and improve the primary school or schools in their charge;

¹ J. S. Mehta. *Primary Education and Democratic Decentralisation in Rajasthan*, 'Indian Journal of Educational Administration and Research.' New Delhi, Ministry of Education, Vol. II, No. 1, p. 9.

² *Ibid*, p. 12.

³ Appendix III of the working paper.

8. To be responsible for the establishment of compulsory primary education;
9. To sanction the changes in the dates of birth and the names of pupils attending primary schools;
10. To conduct new buildings for primary schools and to carry out special repairs;
11. To sanction grant-in-aid to village school committees;
12. To advise the district school committee generally on all matters connected with primary education and other educational activities undertaken in the block;
13. To carry on propaganda in the block for the expansion and improvement of education in general and primary education in particular and
14. To ensure such other powers and perform such other duties, as may be delegated to it by the district school committee from time to time

The functions listed above show how effective a role a *panchayat samiti* or a school committee at a block level can play in the administration of primary education. The work of constructing buildings is of such a nature and magnitude that it has to be shared by the local bodies at the village level, block level and district level. The block *samiti* should be made responsible for supplying the minimum essential equipment to every school in its jurisdiction and also the costlier type of equipment. The opening of new primary schools and determining their location is also a more appropriate function of a block committee than a district school committee. Supervision of primary schools and other educational institutions can be more effectively done by education officers of the block committee than by inspecting officers operating at the district level. The enforcement of compulsory education is also a function which can be better shared by local bodies at the block and village level. Other functions are also very pertinent at the block level.

FUNCTIONS OF THE LOCAL BODY AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL — Whatever name may be given to the local body at the district level, it has to discharge some vital functions in respect of education in general and primary education in particular. It has to prepare the five-year plans for the development of primary education and other educational activities in the district and also, with the approval of the state government, has to adopt all measures necessary to put across the schemes under the five-year plans with efficiency and thoroughness. Government might, from time to time, require the district body to conduct the educational survey of the district and revise it from year to year. The sanction of the schedule of the staff required by the block level committee or the *panchayat samiti* would rest with it. The block and village *panchayat* school committees would need guidance in the construction and the maintenance of their primary school buildings, and it will

be the duty of the district school committee to maintain an adequate engineering department. It shall make regulations, with the approval of the director of education, for all matters connected with the administration of primary education and other educational activities. The authority to sanction the budget of the block school committee or *panchayat samiti* would be also vested in it. It would also arrange for the inspection of the block school committees annually and take necessary action on the inspection report. The grants to block committees would also be sanctioned by it. It would exercise the final control on primary teachers. The responsibility for carrying on propaganda in the district for the expansion and improvement of education in general and primary education in particular will also rest on this body. It will be within the powers of this body to suggest to the director of education such modifications in the prescribed syllabi as may seem necessary to suit local requirements. In general, it would be this body's duty to advise the state government generally on all matters in respect of primary education in the district and other educational activities entrusted to it.

CONCLUSION.—This is how the local bodies at the village level, block level and the district level will be associated with the administration of education in the new administrative set-up envisaged in the scheme of democratic decentralisation.

It would be interesting to note here in passing that the Kher Committee, to which a reference has already been made, also recommended that the residents of the rural area served by a primary school should be associated with its administration in some form or the other. It also suggested that the village *panchayat* should be the lower tier of primary unit of administration and the district as the second and the larger unit in the two tier system of local bodies. The idea of a block *panchayat samiti* is a recent development.

CENTRALISATION OF FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

The trend of our discussion in the preceding section was towards decentralisation of executive authority on local bodies in respect of the administration of primary education as largely as possible. The financial resources of different levels of local bodies being quite limited, it is necessary that this devolution of executive powers on local bodies would be accompanied by centralisation of financial responsibility for primary education on the central and state governments, and more liberal grant-in-aid to the local bodies. Unless this is done, it will not be possible for local bodies to provide equality of educational opportunity which democracy demands. The grant-in-aid to the poor and backward local bodies should be larger than those to richer and advanced bodies. The regional seminar organised by the UNESCO for the countries in the South-East Asia at New Delhi from 26th August to 5th September, 1958 passed the following resolution which also

points to the early need of shifting financial responsibility from the local body to the state in the larger interest of universal compulsory primary education:

The seminar is of the opinion that the financial responsibility for primary education should be placed squarely on the state. Compulsory primary education is essential to the very success of democracy and, therefore, national. Besides, it is so costly an undertaking that local authorities would not ordinarily be able to shoulder its responsibility with state assistance. Moreover, equalisation of educational opportunities will also not be possible unless financial assistance is made available from state resources.

The arguments made here for centralising financial responsibilities on government do not imply that the local bodies working at different levels should have no financial responsibility for primary education in their areas. On the contrary, it is very desirable that some financial responsibility is allotted to them so that there is never a complete divorce between executive authority and financial responsibility. But it may happen that the allocation of adequate financial resources to local bodies at different levels may not be possible. Therefore, a system of adequate grant-in-aid to local bodies should be established so that they can discharge the executive responsibilities delegated to them satisfactorily. A note of precaution against a possible danger of centralised financial responsibility nullifying the effectiveness of decentralised executive powers has to be struck here. The system of grant-in-aid should not be used by government to exercise indirect control on the powers of local bodies in respect of primary education and other educational activities. The Bombay Primary Education Integration Committee made the following observations on the system of grant-in-aid for local bodies which deserve to be noted:

1. The main object of the system of grant-in-aid is to supplement the funds available at lower levels of government in such a way that there would be no financial difficulty to discharge the executive responsibilities delegated to those levels;

2. The second aim of the system of grant-in-aid is to equalise educational opportunity in all parts of the country;

3. The administration of the system of grant-in-aid should be simple and direct and should be planned to minimise delays and red tapism;

4. Care should be taken to see that the system of grant-in-aid does not encourage extravagance and that it increases, rather than decreases, the desire to raise local resources for the purpose of primary education; and

5. The controls attached to grant-in-aid should be reduced to the minimum. They should only aim to ascertain whether the funds sanctioned are utilised for the purpose for which they were granted, and whether they are expended with reasonable

- prudence. Under no circumstances, however, should an attempt be made to exert indirect financial pressures or to nullify the formal delegation of authority indirectly through the administration of grant-in-aid.¹

CONCLUSION

Local bodies in India are entering into a new phase of their life with the introduction of the *panchayat raj* and ushering-in of an era of democratic decentralisation in most of our states. The controversy regarding the desirability of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education no longer exists. The measures of democratic decentralisation would result in larger and closer association of local bodies at different levels with the administration of not only primary education, but with a number of other types of educational programmes like social education. It is envisaged that decentralisation of executive powers to local bodies will be accompanied by centralisation of finance on government and adequate grant-in-aid to local bodies. However, the local authorities also have to contribute their mite in the expenditure on primary education and other educational activities. In many states, the village *panchayat* is not expected to make any contribution for the local school. This is a practice which will be corrected by requiring every local authority to make a minimum statutory contribution for the support of primary schools and other educational activities determined by government. The local community would also be motivated to make voluntary contributions to the school fund of the local body. The powers of guidance, inspection and control will be continued to be exercised by the state. A great future seems to be in store for local bodies in India under the democratic decentralisation set-up.

¹ *Primary Education in the State of Bombay: A Report on Integration and Development*. Vol. I, Government of Bombay, 1961, p. 134.

PRIVATE AGENCIES IN EDUCATION

DR. M. A. QURAISHI

BACKGROUND

Private agencies have played a very important role in building up the present educational system in the country. Before, however, it is essayed to delineate their present position as administrative bodies in our country, it is in the fitness of things to narrate in a brief manner their history. In the beginning of the XIX century, private institutions were of five types, viz.: (1) Indigenous schools; (2) Educational institutions conducted by Christian missionaries; (3) Educational institutions established by officials of the East India Company in their individual capacity or by non-official Englishmen resident in India; (4) Educational institutions of the modern type opened by Indians themselves; and (5) *Mushroom* schools.

When the British occupied this country, there was a network of indigenous schools—the *tois* and *madrassahs* (the seats of higher Sanskrit and Arabic learning respectively), as well as the *pathshalas* and *maktabs* (the Hindu and Muslim elementary schools). These institutions did not receive any financial grants from the East India Company.

The Charter Act of 1813 opened India to Christian missionary societies and a large number of missionary societies started their educational activities in this country. To them, education had been 'evangelico praeparatio'. But this motive led them to single-minded and whole hearted labour in the cause of education in and for itself, and educational activities were almost invariably connected with every mission station.

Besides the missionaries, there was a large body of British officials and non-officials, who were interested in education either as a hobby or a form of social service. "They could lend support to the missionaries", as Naik and Nurullah hold, "either because they believed in secular schools or because they wanted to encourage private enterprise among the Indian people themselves"¹ The notable amongst these persons were Warren Hastings, Jonathan Duncan, Sir Edward Hyde East, David Hare, Mr. J. E. D. Bethune, Prof. Patton and many others.

¹ Naik J. P. and S. Nurullah. *History of Education in India*. Bombay, Macmillan, 1951. p. 182

Side by side with these British officials and non-officials, a few Indians came forward and established a number of English schools. This was necessary because many Indian parents while valuing English education were afraid of the proselytizing influences of the mission schools. These pioneers had a difficult job, because "it required an immense amount of moral courage to come forward to preach the utility of the new education or to conduct institutions based on the new ideals".¹ They had to face special difficulties, because it was believed during those days that the principals of English schools and colleges must be Europeans.

To meet the demand for English education, a number of mushroom schools also came into existence. They were established by adventurous Europeans and as many as twenty such schools were flourishing in Calcutta then. To quote Dr S. N. Mukerji:

... most of these institutions were money-making concerns, but some were founded with serious intentions and imparted a decent general education. About half a dozen schools for girls were also established.²

The policy of the state towards private agencies was yet to be defined. In Madras, the missionaries received financial assistance in the beginning but they were informed in 1830 that "it was foreign to the design of the government that mission schools should be maintained at their expenses". Bombay emphasized the need for government initiative and a cooperation between public and private efforts. Bengal government was giving grants to individual educational societies and to private oriental institutions, but this assistance was not extended to private English schools and colleges.

The Wood's Despatch admitted that it was impossible for the government to develop a comprehensive scheme of education for the whole country single-handed and thus the necessity of building up a system of grant-in-aid was stressed. The despatch proposed to give grants to such schools and colleges as would: (1) satisfy government about the stability of their management, (2) impart good secular education, (3) be open to state inspection and (4) agree to any conditions which might be laid down for the regulation of such grants. The declaration changed much the complexion of things, and the Indian enterprise, hitherto shy, entered the field. Till 1854, private enterprise was confined to missionaries mainly, but by 1882 many private institutions were being run by Indians themselves. So successful were they in their venture that by 1882 the number of the institutions under private Indian administration was 56,018 as against 2,635 managed by other agencies. The break up for these figures is as follows:

¹ Ibid., p. 191.

² S. N. Mukerji, *History of Education in India*. Baroda, Acharya Book Depot, 1957. p. 25.

TABLE 11

Statistics of Educational Institutions, Conducted by Indians, 1881-82*

Institutions	Conducted by Indians	Conducted by others
Arts Colleges	5	18
Secondary Schools	1,341	757
Primary Schools	54,662	1,842
Professional Schools and Colleges ..	10	18
Total...	56,018	2,635

S. Nurullah and J. P. Naik. *History of Education in India*. Bombay, Macmillan, 1951. p. 260.

What underlay this sudden outburst of the Indians' educational activities? All such activities can be traced back to their patriotic feelings. During these years the country witnessed a great awakening in its masses, whose leaders were filled with a burning passion for building up a great Indian nation and who had realised that:

... a new nation after their hearts desire could not be built up unless the education of the country's youth came to be controlled and managed by Indians themselves. Hence, it was that a movement for establishing schools and colleges started about the time in all provinces—a movement which finds a brilliant expression in such institutions as the Mahomedan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh and the Deccan Education Society of Poona....

Too much tribute cannot be paid to the workers in the cause of Indian education in the years between 1882-1902. It was these nameless sons of Mother India that satisfied as well as created the public demand for more education that grew up at this time and thereby laid the foundation of the modern national life in India.¹

The year 1882 is of great importance in the history of Indian education. It was in this year that an Indian Education Commission was set up to survey the educational activities of the country. The recommendations of this commission regarding the institutions managed by private agencies were very outstanding, and they gave a great fillip to private enterprise. It recommended that private institutions should be accepted as equal to those managed by the government, that generous financial aid should be given to them and that the government should not interfere in their internal affairs. As a result of these recommendations there was a rapid expansion of schools and colleges under private administration in the last two decades of the nineteenth century.

¹ Naik & Nurullah, *op. cit.*, pp. 261-62.

Two new types of private schools came into existence during this period. In the first place, a few chiefs' colleges were established as a result of the recommendations of the Hunter Commission. These were designed on the lines of the great public schools of England. Though semi-official in nature, these institutions are at present under private management. Secondly, a few private institutions were started by some of our great patriots with the object of imparting sound education to Indian students on national lines. It was felt by these leaders that the character of Indian youths can be built by Indians themselves. Some of the most notable institutions under this category were: (1) 'Fergusson college, Poona, founded by the late Messrs. V. K. Chiplonkar, B. G. Tilak and G. G. Agarkar, (2) Ripon College, Calcutta by Sir Surendra Nath Banerji, (3) D. A. V. College, Lahore by the Arya Samaj, (4) Central Hindu College, Banaras, by Smt. Annie Besant and (5) Brahmacharya Ashram, Shantiniketan by Tagore.

The first quarter of the present century is noteworthy for a number of significant features in the history of education in India. In this period the state came to play a more dominating part than the other agencies, and more stress came to be laid on the improvement in the quality of education than on its quantitative expansion. All the same, this period saw an unprecedented educational expansion at all stages in the whole of the country. This was chiefly due to a great political and social resurgence, and was brought about by the efforts of the private agencies. The tempo of the progress continued in the subsequent years, also, and we find that while private agencies administered 4,693 high schools in 1921-22, in 1936-37 their number was 6,559; and while the number of students in the high schools in 1921-22 was 11,06,803 it became 22,87,872 in the year 1936-37. The decade following this year was, however, not favourable to the private agencies. The World War II had very adverse effects on the managements of private educational institutions. In this period they "had to face a chill or indifferent public, a discontented staff which was often in revolt, a disturbed student population, and an extremely exacting department." Fortunately for the country the thirteen years of independence have proved very beneficial to the cause of education and both government and private agencies have come out with a very flattering record of achievements. The policy of encouraging private institutions through a policy of grant-in-aid became more vigorous. A comparative position of the distribution of institutions by managements (1945-56) is given in Table 12:

TABLE 12

Distribution of Institutions by Management 1945-56*

Management	1945				1956			
	Colleges	High Schools	Middle Schools	Primary Schools	Colleges	High Schools	Middle Schools	Primary Schools
Government ..	130	412	314	3,077	160	1,612	4,961	64,827
Local Bodies ..	1	364	5,931	89,363	2	1,402	8,988	142,233
Private Bodies:								
Aided ..	247	2,796	4,289	69,897	414	6,224	5,408	67,263
Unaided ..	121	923	1,271	5,534	81	1,600	2,373	3,822
Total ..	499	4,495	11,805	167,871	657	10,838	21,730	278,135

* L. Mukherjee. *Problems of Administration of Education in India*. Allahabad, Kitab Mahal, 1960. pp. 118-19.

The above table shows that not only the number of private institutions showed a considerable rise, but also that the private enterprise exceeded the public institutions whether maintained by government or local bodies except in the field of elementary education.

ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN DIFFERENT FIELDS OF EDUCATION¹

PRIMARY EDUCATION.—The most vigorous activities of the private agencies during these days are pursued in the field of primary education. It is here that they have displayed a commendable initiative, zeal and determination to spread education and to succeed in their efforts. The different state governments have also to some extent made matters easy for the private agencies to enable them to expand their activities. In Andhra, private aided bodies have been permitted to open elementary schools in areas with no schools and outside a radius of one mile from any recognised school. In Madras, the state government has shown its interest in the stability of teachers in the primary schools. In order to make the service of the teachers more secure it has made some amendments to the elementary education rules dealing with the termination of service of teachers by the managements. In the administration and control of primary education private agencies play a predominant role in the states of Bihar, Kerala and Orissa, where 61.3 per cent, 57.7 per cent and 69.5 per cent¹ respectively of the total number of primary schools are managed by them. In the rest of the states the majority of the primary schools are managed and administered by the local boards in the rural areas and municipal boards in urban areas. In the year 1956-57, the total number of primary schools in India was 2,87,298 of which those managed by private agencies were 71,136. The percentage of private primary schools was thus 24.8. This was higher than that of government schools which was 22.3. It may, however, be noted that during 1951-57 though the number of private primary

¹ All the figures in this section are for the year 1956-57, unless otherwise stated.

schools is steadily increasing, yet their number has been falling in their proportion to the total number. This will be evident from the following table:

TABLE 13

Number of Private Primary Schools, 1951-57*

Year	Total No. of Primary Schools	Total No. of Private Primary Schools	Percentage of Private Schools ^a
1951-52	2,15,036	64,710	30.1
1952-53	2,22,014	65,967	29.7
1953-54 *	2,39,382	66,817	27.9
1954-55	2,63,626	71,344	27.1
1955-56	2,78,135	71,085	25.6
1956-57	2,87,298	71,136	24.8

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I p 286.

During 1956-57, the primary schools managed by private bodies had 58,614,697 pupils on their rolls, which number was 24.4 per cent of the total number of all the pupils enrolled by all the schools. The average annual cost of schooling a child at the primary stage amounted to Rs. 23.4 and the total cost that the private managements had to bear was Rs. 12,73,25.912 which was almost equal to that borne by the government. It will be noticed here that in spite of the fact that education in government or semi-government primary schools is free, 25 per cent of pupils attend primary schools where they have to pay fees. The only safe conclusion we can draw from this is that parents who want their children to receive better attention usually prefer to put them in private schools.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The agencies that manage the secondary schools in the country are (1) government, (2) local bodies, and (3) private bodies. In most of the Indian states, the majority of the high schools are managed by private bodies. The work of the recognition, inspection and prescription of the curriculum and syllabi and the sanctioning of grant for all such schools is done by education departments of the states. The control of high and higher secondary schools is shared by the state education departments with universities, and boards, who have the power to prescribe the courses and conduct examinations.

The increase in the number of high schools under private management is rapid. In the year 1957, there was an increase of 11.4 per cent in the number of secondary schools. The total number of secondary schools in 1957 was 36,291 of which 16,955 were managed by private agencies. This number was, however, made up of 8,492 middle schools and 8,463 high schools. Again it should be noted that out of the

total number of privately managed middle and high schools 24.9 per cent and 57.3 per cent were aided schools and the rest were unaided.

When we come to the proportion of middle and high schools under various managing agencies, we find that so far as the former are concerned, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore, Punjab, and Rajasthan do not show much initiative on the part of the private bodies. In Bombay the percentage of middle schools managed by private agencies both aided and unaided was only 10.8 as opposed to 30.0 of those managed by government, local boards and municipal boards. The percentages in Madhya Pradesh, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh were 7.6, 10.1, 14, and 12.9 respectively. On the whole during 1956-57, only 34.7 of the total number of middle schools were under private management in the entire country. But as far as the high/higher secondary schools are concerned, it is the private bodies that dominate the field. During 1956-57, as many as 71.7 per cent of high/higher secondary schools were managed by private bodies. The states where more than 50 per cent of the secondary schools are managed privately are: Assam, Bihar, Kerala, Madras, Orissa, and West Bengal.

The number of students in all the recognised secondary schools was 95,79,164 out of which 49.4 per cent were enrolled in private schools. The importance of the role played by private management in the field of secondary education is clearly manifest from these figures. It may be mentioned here that as the needs of about half of the high schools student population are catered for by private bodies these institutions should be run very efficiently and should not be allowed to degenerate into money-making machines only.

The increase in the number of secondary schools and the school-going population has naturally resulted in increased expenditure. The total direct expenditure on secondary schools in 1956-57 was Rs. 58,73,42,650. Out of this 48.3 per cent (i.e. Rs. 28,38,62,612) was spent on aided private schools and 8.5 per cent (i.e. Rs. 5,00,05,717) was spent on unaided ones.

The publication of the Secondary Education Commission's Report has given a new impetus to secondary education. It made a number of significant remarks for the reorganisation of secondary education in this country. With a view to implementing these recommendations all the state governments are now giving grants to the majority of private bodies managing the schools, specially to those that come forward to convert their schools into multipurpose schools, to improve the teaching of science, to equip the schools with the latest teaching aids and to enlarge the libraries. Due to the liberal grants disbursed by the

government there is a great deal of expansion in the facilities at the secondary stage of education. There is, however, one thing which has not kept pace with this. It is the construction of new school buildings. Most of the schools run by private agencies are housed in old, hired residential buildings which are unsuited to the needs of a modern school. The managing bodies however can be excused for this, because the funds at their disposal are too meagre to meet the demands made on them by the rising cost of building material and the shortage of suitable sites in towns and cities. Many state governments are aware of this and they have begun to give non-recurring grants to private bodies for the construction of new schools buildings. Several private agencies have now also begun to secure voluntary contribution of labour and building material from the community which is served by their schools.

VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS. — As a great demand is now made for trained personnel in the fields of engineering, medicine and education because of the technical, industrial and educational projects undertaken by the government under the five-year plans, the number of vocational and technical schools in the country is on the increase. In the year 1956-57, the number of such schools was 3,023. The government managed 38.2 per cent of these schools, local bodies 1.5 per cent, private aided bodies 28.9 per cent and private unaided bodies 1.4 per cent.¹

TABLE 14

Vocational and Technical Schools*
(Government and Private) 1956-57

Schools	Government	Private	Total
Agriculture ..	84	10	94
Arts and Crafts ..	69	235	304
Commerce ..	6	723	729
Engineering ..	39	29	68
Medical ..	50	59	109
Physical Education ..	1	34	35
Technical and Industrial	380	331	711

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol II. pp. 8-9.

In addition to the above schools, there are several institutions and colleges which impart technical education and which are also managed by private agencies. The total number of technical and professional colleges excluding university teaching departments

¹ *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol I. p. 205.

and classes attached to arts and science colleges was 399 out of which 194 were under private management (1956-57). Of these 281 institutions and colleges, there were 22 commerce colleges, 21 engineering colleges and 43 medical colleges.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION. — The content and coverage of education at the collegiate and university level has expanded in the country very much. New institutions are started, new courses and subjects are introduced at various levels; facilities for technical education are given; staff is strengthened; laboratories are equipped better, and library facilities are increased. For the purpose of improving and coordinating university education the Central Government have appointed the University Grants Commission which is doing a yeoman service to the cause of higher education. For the expansion of higher education the country is largely beholden to the private agencies. Out of the 2,341 institutions of higher education 882 are managed by private bodies, and this number includes arts and science colleges, colleges for professional education and colleges for special education. But while about 75 per cent of the colleges for arts and science and special education are under private management more than half of the colleges catering for professional education are owned and administered by the government. A large number of arts and science colleges in the Punjab, professional education colleges in Bombay, and special education colleges in Madras are managed by unaided private bodies. The number of students enrolled in the colleges under private management was 5,53,922 or 73.8 per cent of the total number of students. The total direct expenditure on higher education amounted to Rs. 32,04,69,016. The private bodies spent 66.2 per cent of this amount on their institutions. Below are given the number of some of the institutions of higher education managed by private and other agencies:

TABLE 1

Institutions of Higher Education by Management
1956-57*

Institution	Managed by private agencies	Managed by other Agencies
Colleges for General Education		
Arts	108	10
Science	13	5
Arts & Science	330	115
Intermediatic	132	601
Total	583	190

Colleges for Professional Education

Agriculture	..	3	22
Commerce	..	22	6
Engineering	..	21	26
Law	..	22	7
Medicine	..	44	45
Physical Education	..	3	7
Teachers' Training	..	58	42
Technology	.	3	4
Veterinary Science	..	1	14
Others	.	2	1
TOTAL		<u>179</u>	<u>164</u>

Colleges for Special Education

Music and Dancing	.	17	5
Fine Arts		1	4
Oriental Studies		60	25
Sociology		5	1
Others		8	2
TOTAL	.	<u>91</u>	<u>37</u>

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol II pp 6-7

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES. — The activities of the private agencies are not limited to the fields described above. They have done commendable work in the fields of pre-primary education and education of the handicapped also. The number of pre-primary schools in the country is 769. It is worthy of note that 84 per cent of these schools are under private management. These enthusiastic bodies are not satisfied only with managing the schools, but they run institutions for training pre-primary teachers also.

In 1956-57, there were 98 institutions for the education of physically handicapped. As many as two-thirds of them were privately managed.

CONCLUSION

The classification of recognised institutions according to managements for the years 1955-56 and 1956-57 are given in Table 16.

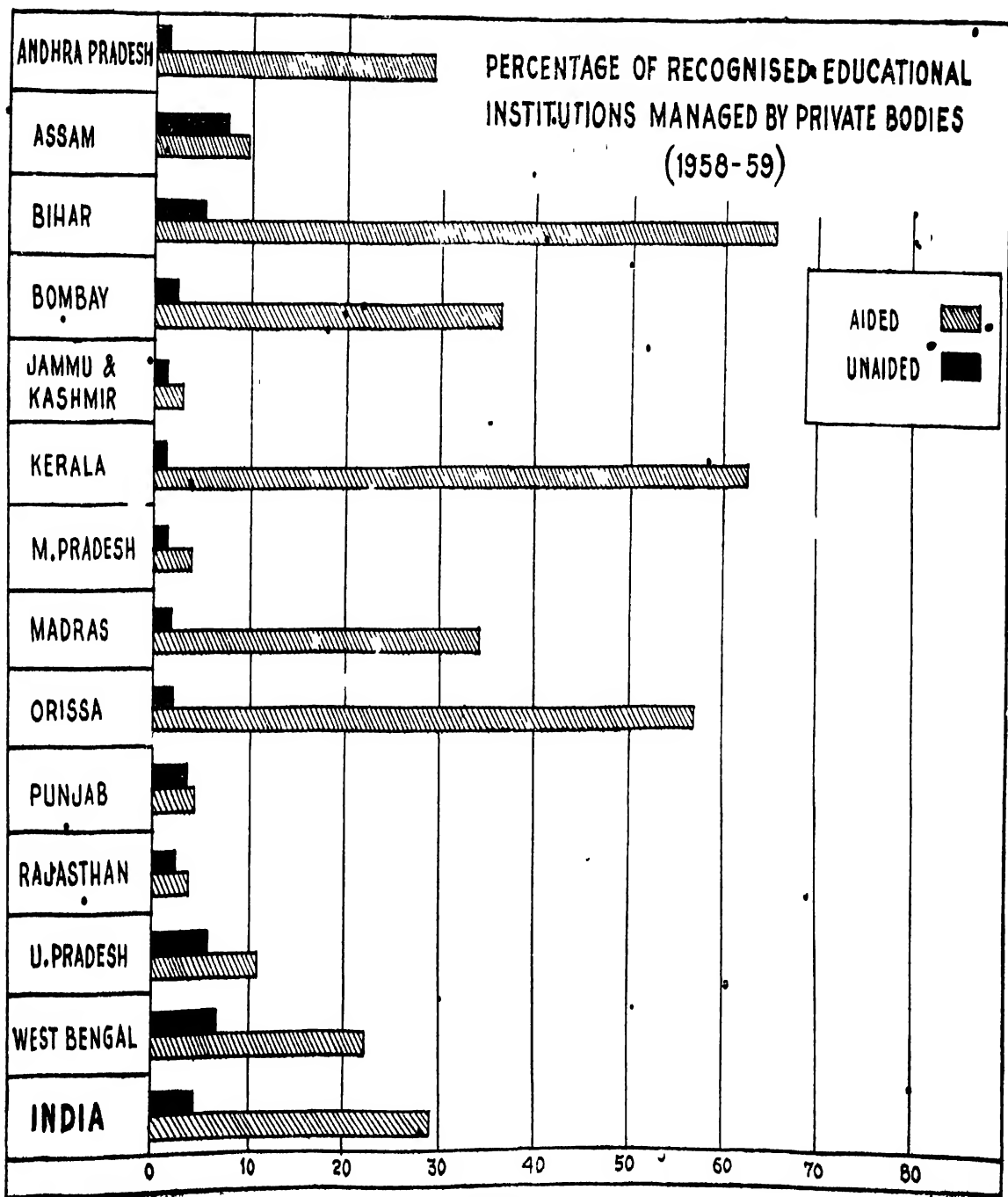


CHART 8

TABLE 16

Number of Recognised Institutions by Management 1955-56 and 1956-57*

Managements	1955-56		1956-57	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Government	87,601	23.9	87,352	23.1
District Boards	1,42,980	39.0	1,56,028	41.3
Municipal Boards	10,497	2.9	10,658	2.8
Private Bodies:				
Aided	1,14,204	31.1	1,12,169	29.7
Unaided	11,359	3.1	11,630	3.1
TOTAL	3,66,641	100.0	3,77,837	100.0

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol I. p. 15.

It will be clear from the above table that approximately one-third of educational institutions in India are under private management. These are of various types, and sizes and locations, which can be broadly classified under following categories:

1. Religious organisations;
2. Registered under trust boards;
3. Certain private bodies; and
4. Individuals.

Amongst the managements of the first type are the Christian missionary societies, Ramkrishna Mission, Arya Samaj, and other religious orders. These organisations have contributed to the expansion of educational facilities and many of them maintain a reasonable level of efficiency. Some of the schools are, however, ill-equipped, poorly staffed, and the recruitment of their staff is influenced by religious or sectarian considerations.

A few educational institutions are maintained by Registered Trust Boards. It is laid down in some instances, under the terms of the trust deed, that these institutions would be run exclusively for certain purposes or for certain sections of the population exclusively. This is contrary to the directives of the Indian Constitution, according to which India is a secular state.

A large number of educational institutions are, however, maintained by various types of private bodies. A few of them have adopted the life-member system, according to which the teachers of these institutions themselves form the management and have a controlling voice in the affairs of the society. They are imbued with devotion and determination

which are present in educational institutions like the Deccan Education Society, Jamia Millia at Delhi, Surat Sarvajanik Society, etc. They take a pledge to serve the institution for a fixed number of years and accept as remuneration merely living wages. Besides these institutions, a few schools have a specific purpose. The 'public' schools of India belong to this category. A large number of educational institutions are, however, established for meeting the educational needs of a locality. They are controlled by a group of citizens in the locality who take a lead in forming a society for conducting the institution and they employ teachers as employees. They share the burden of financing the school.

Finally, there is also a fairly large number of educational institutions, which are run by certain individuals as proprietors. It is high time that no educational institution should be run on such lines and that they should be governed by a suitable managing board registered under the Companies Act.

The private institutions have again different objectives, and are of various types and locations. They range from the 'mammoth' schools and colleges of Calcutta, Bombay or Delhi to tiny institutions set up by private benefactors in rural areas and small mufossil towns. In the motives behind foundation, they range from a real educational altruism, as in the case of the Christian schools and colleges or the educational institutions of the Deccan Education Society or of the Ramkrishna Mission, down to the most sordid seeking of the private profit, as when the virtual proprietor over-crowds his school or college to the point of grossly unsatisfactory conditions, pays his staff less than can afford them a bare subsistence and reaps a handsome annual revenue. It is sad to see how some educational institutions, founded by distinguished men from the best motive, have since deteriorated into mass-production establishments where fee income is the main consideration.

The reasons are quite obvious. The financial position of a private institution is usually not so good as that of a government one. A private school that has little endowment and few donations has unfortunately either to charge high tuition fees or to keep its expenses down; and it is the latter alternative that it usually chooses. But when the latter alternative is chosen there is a lowering of the quality of instruction; the teachers receive less salaries; the libraries buy fewer books and the laboratories are ill-equipped and become antiquated. Even today when government is out to help them adequately, private educational institutions have their financial headaches. Fees still constitute about 70 per cent of the income; and as a ceiling is to be maintained in the increase in fees, the managements resort to the undesirable practice of increasing the number of students. Private donations which form an important source of income, too, have of late become difficult to come by. The financial difficulties of private educational institutions must needs be solved in order to improve and expand education in national interests.

Equally discomfoting is the fact that the majority of private schools lack in originality and dull uniformity is the general rule. "It is possible," as Dr. L. Mukherjee says, "because private enterprise being forced to look to the government for assistance and recognition has always been forced to submit to conditions that prevent independence and originality, and their proverbial paucity of funds have always prevented them to risk in such ventures of experimentation as would foster certain creative forces, which are always associated with originality."¹

It will also be necessary in national interests to mention here some of the very highly obnoxious practices followed by some private agencies managing educational institutions. Of late a number of private high schools and colleges have simply become educational rackets. Students who do not have any migration certificates are admitted to these institutions; school or college leaving certificates are issued to persons who have never studied there, and persons who have not worked as teachers are sold certificates to the effect that they are teachers to enable them to appear for certain university examinations as teacher candidates. These and a number of other similar malpractices cannot be indulged in unless the managing bodies are in league with certain officials of the departments of education. It is high time that strict vigilance is exercised by the authorities and such dishonest and unacademic practices as are a stigma on education are scorched without any delay.

But worse than private schools are the unrecognised schools. A recent survey conducted by the Central Institute of Education, Delhi, reveals that for every student appearing for higher secondary examination in Delhi, there are two who are prepared by private unrecognised schools for the Punjab Matriculation examination. A big unrecognised school is headed by a principal drawing a monthly salary of Rs. 1,200. Another unrecognised school has as many as 11 branches — six within a radius of a mile.² This state of affairs is deplorable. Can there be anything more shocking?

Whatever may be the drawbacks of the private enterprise, it must be admitted that it is characterised by a dynamism and vitality which constitute an invaluable asset in the development of education in the country. It will always continue to play a vital role. Its contributions in the development of education are significant. As the Committee on Higher education for Rural Areas noted, "Institutions managed by private bodies seemed particularly alert to the need to develop programmes suited to the special requirements of their neighbouring communities".³

¹ L. Mukherjee. *Problems of Administration of Education in India*. Allahabad, Kitab Mahal, 1960. p. 122.

² *Times of India*, March 10, 1959.

³ Committee on Higher Education for Rural Areas. *Rural Institutes*. Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1955. p. 36.

It is, however, wrong to suppose that the educational system of the country is being run on a commercial basis due to the rise of private enterprise. In this connection, the reply of Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Union Minister of Education, to a half-hour debate on the 'commercialisation of education' in the Lok Sabha on April 5, 1961 is relevant. He told the house that it was the Government's policy to encourage private educational institutions. He said it would be wrong to suggest that the public schools, which charged high fees, should be closed. Dr. Shrimali also added, that institutions like public schools had rendered a distinct service to society by providing a better type of education and that these schools were independent and did not receive any aid from the Government. The Minister said that many of the private institutions were working in great difficulty despite enhanced government aid. These institutions were rendering good service to society and they should be encouraged. There might, however, be some bogus institutions and if concrete examples of these institutions were brought to the notice of the Government, drastic action would be taken against them, he added.¹

To sum up, it should be appreciated that the country owes much to the private agencies as administrative bodies and in future too it is bound to look up to them for educational advancement. It is therefore desirable and necessary that a thorough large-scale survey of the different activities of private educational agencies is carried out and broad principles on which they should be organised and run are evolved. The spheres of their activities should be well defined. How their plans should be coordinated on a country-wide basis, how financial resources should be pooled together, how some large "Foundations" should be raised and how public opinion should be created in favour of such activities are problems of mighty proportions and cannot be solved by an individual here or there or by some local initiative. Let a band of sincere, zealous, and unassuming educators from all over the country, who do not delight in publicity alone, and to whom national cause is dearer than their own advancement, supported by the Central and State governments, take up these problems of educational reconstruction and find out their solutions as early as possible.

¹ *Times of India*. April 7, 1961.

AGE

3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

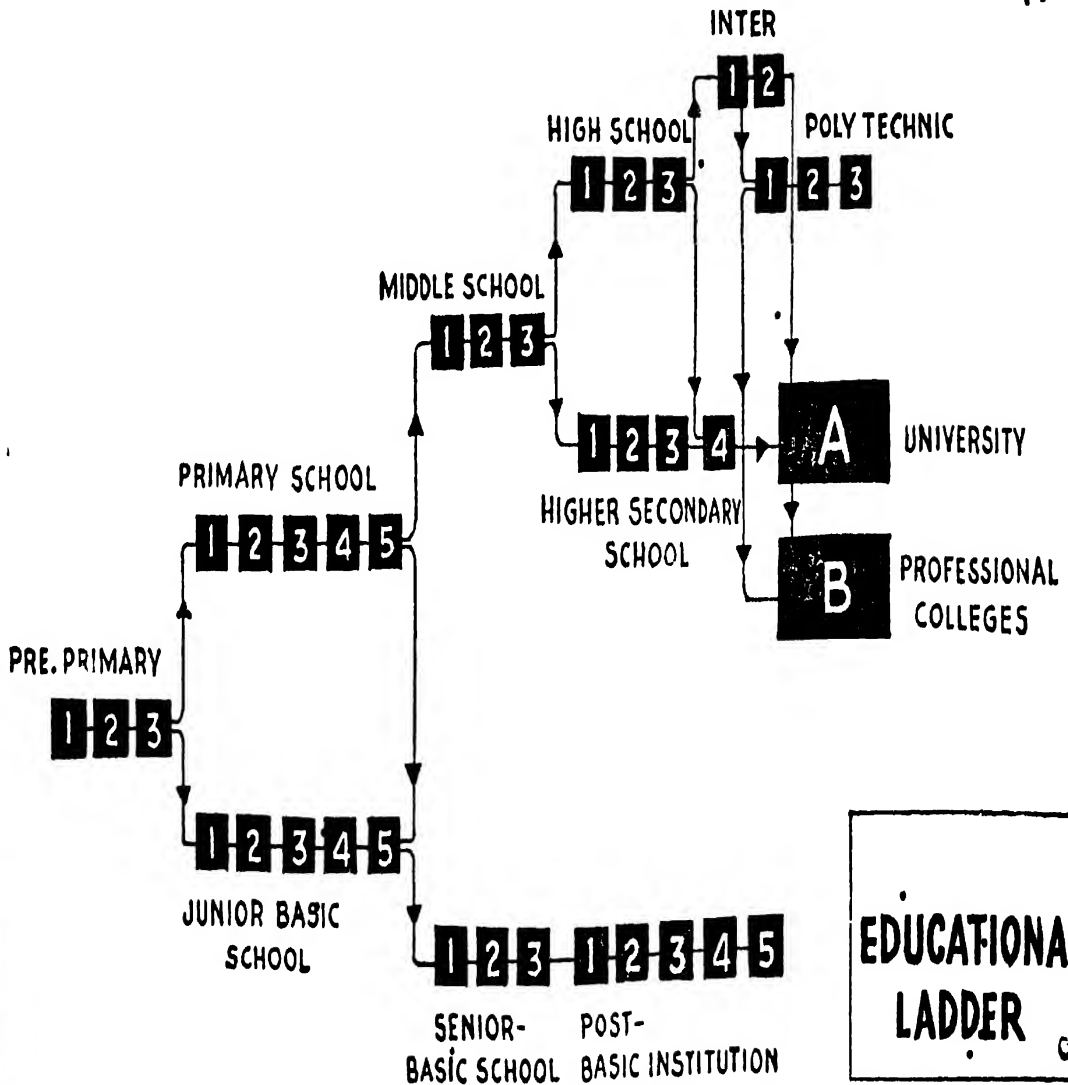


CHART 9

PART TWO

BRANCHES OF EDUCATION

CHAPTER

7. *Pre-primary Education*
 8. *Primary Education*
 9. *Secondary Education*
 10. *University Education*
 11. *Technical Education*
 12. *Social Education*
 13. *Educational Finance*
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Part Two discusses the administration of some of the main branches of education. Each has its own special features and methods of administration and organization.

One of the main tasks facing India today is to find out ways and means for tackling the fundamental problems of each branch, and she is experimenting with new methods and techniques. This Part gives a comprehensive survey of seven branches of education

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

DR. (KUM.) S. SAXENA

INTRODUCTION

By pre-primary education is meant here the guidance and training imparted through specially designed methods, in carefully controlled, happy, and stimulating environment, to children from 2½ to 6 years of age, with the explicit purpose of helping their physical, intellectual, emotional and social development. Such education would aim also at promoting the mental health of the children, not only by exercising their capacity of adaptation and adjustment for life in group of equals but also by helping parents improve themselves as parents, and then seeking their cooperation in the momentous task of child growth and development that is its prime concern.

DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS

Though in the accepted sense of the term, pre-primary education is western in origin and began in India towards the end of the 19th century, there is evidence to show that the education of children below 6 years of age was fairly wide-spread in post-vedic India,¹ and in subsequent years it had at least continued to exist in one form or another. Finally, with the advent of English education the kindergarten also appeared, but in the beginning it was treated more as a part of primary branch than a system of child education. Initiative for pre-primary education perhaps first came from the missionaries who started some of the earliest pre-schools that have come to existence such as Kindergarten, Loreto Convent, Lucknow (started in 1874), and St. Hilda's Nursery School, Panch Howd, Poona (started in 1885). Indians were not slow to take up the cue, and private organisations of child education and welfare like the Nutan Bal-Shikshan Sangh (Dadar—Bombay) and the Balkan-Ji Bari (Gulistan, Khar, Bombay) came into the field before the end of 1920. Dr. Maria Montessori was invited to this country in 1939, and her stay proved very helpful to the progress of Montessori education.

The government, however, remained more or less unconcerned about pre-primary education. The first official document to give thought to this stage of education was the Sargent Report of 1944 which called upon the government as well as the people to provide for pre-primary education. The emergence of the pre-basic scheme in

¹ S. Saxena. *Pre-Primary Education in India*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Lucknow University, 1959. pp. 85-88.

1945 was another step forward in this direction. After independence, the Government of India's First Five-Year Plan also reiterated the need for promoting pre-school education. But since the central and state governments remained mainly pre-occupied with providing for universal primary education and could not give the required attention to this stage, the provision for pre-school education remained inadequate. Thus, in the year 1952-53, the total number of recognized and unrecognized pre-schools in India was in the vicinity of six hundred, and only one child out of seven hundred and forty was receiving pre-primary education.¹ During 1958-59, there were 1,164 pre-primary schools in the country with an enrolment of 80,118.² These figures serve to indicate how far India still has to go in making necessary provision for child education.

MAJOR TYPES OF PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION. — The twelve hundred pre-primary schools that India has now would, on closer observation, seem to be more diversified than their theoretical classification into the four main types, viz., the Nursery, the Kindergarten, the Montessori, and the Pre-Basic would suggest. The differences creep in out of the diversity of not only aims and activities but also administration, management and the socio-economic group for which the pre-schools cater. There are thus at least eight major types of pre-schools today. We give below the special features of each.

THE KINDERGARTENS RUN BY CONVENTS OR MISSIONS MAINLY FOR THE WELL-TO-DO. — Though missionaries conduct some pre-schools for the poorer sections also, the majority of them are expensive and are mostly located in important cities of India. They have adopted the kindergarten system and are essentially foreign in their culture and ways. These schools attach major importance to Christianity, and continue to have English as the medium of instruction. They do not make use of the Froebelian "gifts" and "occupations" and unlike the progressive kindergartens in the U.S.A. provide little opportunity for free activity, self-expression or socialization. Nevertheless, the quality of education imparted is better than in other institutions, and as such those who can afford usually prefer to send their children to these kindergartens.

NURSERY SCHOOLS FOR THE WELL-TO-DO.—These are also well-provided and expensive, but differ from the above mentioned kindergartens in having a smaller age-group of pupils and a more Indianized character. Under Indian management, these are usually close to children's own culture, and their medium of instruction is the mother-tongue.

The daily schedule consists of activities typical of a good nursery school such as play, meals and rest, rhymes and stories, music and dancing, free conversation, creative handwork and games, and an informal teaching of language and numbers. The main and perhaps the one limitation of these schools is their expensive character.

PRE-SCHOOLS FOR THE POOR AND THE SCHEDULED CASTES.—These are free schools started by the government, or persons and organizations wedded to social service. Their main purpose is to take care of the neglected and ill-provided children, and to teach them the habits of cleanliness, regularity, good speech and manners. The programme consists of inexpensive but useful creative activities, and some instruction. Free milk or snack, and school uniforms are sometimes provided. In a country like India where a large percentage of the population is poor and not quite convinced of the benefit of educating children, the need for such pre-schools cannot be overemphasised.

THE (AMI) MONTESSORI SCHOOLS.—There are just about a dozen schools in India, affiliated to the Association Montessori Internationale (AMI), which have to be distinguished from the other so-called Montessori schools. These are a practical counterpart of the Montessori Method as advocated by Dr. Montessori. The full use of the Montessori apparatus with teachers trained under the auspices of the AMI is their essential requirement. These schools are rather expensive and the advantages and disadvantages inherent in the Montessori Method are clearly reflected in them.

THE MONTESSORI SCHOOLS NOT STRICTLY MONTESSORIAN.—These form the largest group among the pre-schools in India. Unlike the AMI schools, they do not strictly adhere to the Montessori Method but feel free to make additions and alterations according to their choice and needs, with the result that they are often biassed towards one or the other of the kindergarten, the nursery or the pre-basic methods. The type of training the teachers had naturally has its influence too. When not in competent hands, such schools do not work satisfactorily, but under competent teachers they seem highly efficient and indicate that an intelligent adaptation of the Montessori Method to diverse Indian conditions could perhaps work better than the original.

THE PRE-BASIC SCHOOLS.—Though the pre-basic method is of Indian origin, purely pre-basic schools are very few. The pre-basic scheme has an ideology behind it, but in practice there is little to distinguish it as a separate method of child education. Hence, the so-called pre-basic schools are generally mixed in character. The few that strictly adhere to the method suffer from two main weaknesses. The first is the principle of inexpensiveness carried to an extreme, due to which the schools can neither have the necessary teaching aids and equipment, nor any equitably paid teachers. The second weakness is the rigidity of

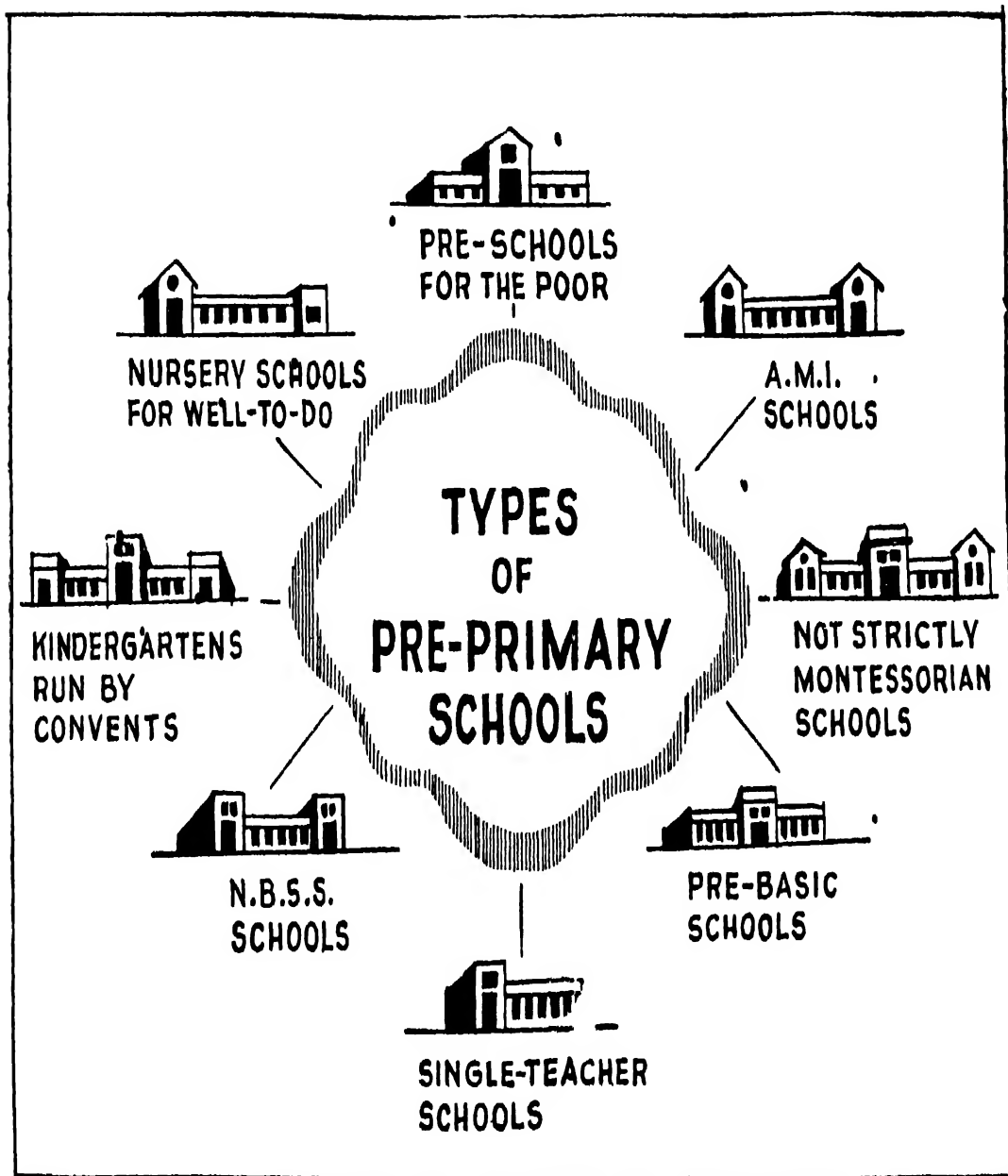


CHART 10

attitude which does not allow such schools to take suggestions and ideas from others. These pre-schools that have taken from the pre-basic the principles of inexpensiveness, self-help and life-centred education, have shown more flexibility in other respects and are consequently doing better work. Schools described earlier as "Pre-Schools for the Poor and the Scheduled Castes" and some of the "Not-Strictly-Montessorian" schools are examples in point.

THE PRIVATELY SPONSORED, SINGLE-TEACHER, SINGLE-ROOM PRE-SCHOOLS.—More recently some such schools have also sprung up. However, when facilities are forthcoming, they do not remain "single-teacher, single-room" schools for long, and develop into full-fledged pre-schools. The work and usefulness of such schools naturally depend on the education, integrity and motive of the sponsor-teacher. Whether or not any set method is followed also depends on the training that the teacher may have had. Thus, though there is need for many more privately sponsored schools to come up, it is also extremely desirable that there be some supervisory organization to sift the wheat from the chaff.

THE NUTAN BAL SHIKSHAN SANGH (NBSS) SCHOOLS.—The schools run by or affiliated to the NBSS are distinguishable by their experimental outlook. On the one hand they try to present a useful adaptation of the Montessori Method to Indian conditions, and on the other, to incorporate the good points of the pre-basic without following it rigidly. Thus, though the principles of keeping the cost down and using indigenous materials are favoured, the use of standard educational apparatus and equipment not indigenous is not tabooed. Unlike the basic and pre-basic schemes, the NBSS recognizes that rural and other differences exist and that they should be taken care of. It, therefore, conducts both urban and rural urban experimental pre schools, and also separate pre-primary teacher training centres to supply suitable teachers for both. If the Sangh continues to be experimental and progressive, its pre-schools will also give a happy direction to others.

CONCLUSION.—Pre-primary education in India thus evinces a number of trends each one of which has some merits of its own, and yet there is ample scope for experimentation and modification. This is a task that cannot be left entirely to private and voluntary efforts. The state departments of education and the universities need to come forward with guidance, help and supervision.

MANAGEMENT

As would appear from the above description of the various types of pre-schools that private effort plays an important role in the sphere of pre-primary education. This fact is further corroborated by a survey made of the existing pre-schools, which showed that the

majority of the schools were run by private agencies like the NBS, the AMI, Trusts & Societies, and various women's organizations. According to management, the pre-schools could be classified under five heads as shown in the table below. It also indicates the percentage of schools under different managements.

TABLE 17

Percentage of Pre-primary Schools by Management

	Management	Percentage
Government	11
Local Bodies	5
Church or Mission.	17
Private Individuals	10
Private Organization	57
Total	100

As seen from the above Table, the government and the local bodies together owned only 16 per cent of all pre-schools. Nearly the same number were managed by missionary societies, and schools run by private individuals were almost equal in numbers to those run by the government, i.e., about 10 per cent. The rest of the schools, about 57 per cent were under the management of private organizations.

One agency that seems almost conspicuous by its absence here is that of industrial or labour organizations. Perhaps there are only a handful of pre-schools in the whole country maintained or aided by such organizations, whereas in other advanced countries, these contribute very significantly towards the management and maintenance of creches, nursery schools and kindergartens for the children of their employees. It is true that India is comparatively much less industrialized, but at least the industrial and allied organizations that exist could fulfil their responsibility in the field.

Universities again contribute very little in this sphere. Not much has been done by them to encourage research in either child psychology or pre-school education. Indian universities could perhaps take an inspiration from their counterparts in the U.S.A. in respect of making nursery schools their laboratories for child study.

As regards the role of the government, it is not really as disappointing as would appear from the statistics of the above Table. Thus though only 11 per cent of the pre-schools were under the state management, a much larger number received some financial aid from government. The sources of income as gathered from the replies received from 90 pre-primary schools throw additional light on the matter. The analysis is summed up in Table 18.

TABLE 18

**The Distribution of Income from Various Sources in Some Selected
Pre-primary Schools**

Sources of Income	No. of Schools
Fees	67
Government	47
Local Bodies	17
Private Individuals	14
Others	30

The above data show, in the first instance, that several schools derived their income from more than one source, and of all the sources of income fees were the most prominent. Nearly 50 per cent of the schools received some aid from government, though in many cases this aid was meagre. Local bodies did not seem to be taking enough interest even in this respect as is seen from the fact that only about 19 per cent of schools (17 out of 90) received any aid from them. Private individuals contributed to a lesser extent. The number of schools aided by local bodies and individuals together equals that of schools aided by other sources such as missions, trusts and societies, managing bodies, and in a couple of cases, universities.

These data further reveal that though 57 per cent of the schools were managed by private organizations (Table 17) many of them did not receive any financial support from the management and derived their income from fees or other sources only.

It is of particular interest to note that the managements of the 23 free schools did not charge any fees (see Table 19) and depended for their finances exclusively on the managing authority. As against the figures of Table 17, these data are more revealing.

TABLE 19

An Analysis of Free Pre-primary Schools

Management	Total No. of Schools	No. of Free Schools
Government	11	7
Local Bodies	5	1
Church or Mission	17	3
Private Individuals	10	—
Private Organizations	57	12
Total	100	23

Putting together the figures in columns 2 and 3 of Table 19, it is seen that at least half of the pre-schools (8 out of 16), run by the government and semi-government (local) bodies, were free. On the other hand, only about one-fifth were free and were under the management of missionary and private individuals or organizations. In view of the general poverty of the country, and in the present undeveloped state of pre-primary education, one could not expect many more pre-schools to be free under government or non-government management.

COST AND EXPENDITURE

It is already noticed, that out of the 100 schools that mentioned their sources of income 23 were free. To find out the cost of pre-school education as borne by the pupil, it seemed useful to study the types and amounts of fees charged in the other schools. In this respect, the 100 schools that answered the query can be classified under the following categories:

TABLE 20
Fees Charged in Some Pre-Primary Schools

Amount of Fees Per Month	Number of Schools		
	Tuition	Tiffin	Bus
Nil	23	18	1
Upto Rs. 2-50	26	16	—
Upto Rs. 5/-	34	6	6
Upto Rs. 10/-	9	5	10
Upto Rs. 20/-	8	—	3
Total	100	45	20

As the data in Table 20 show, besides the 23 per cent of schools that did not charge any tuition fees, another 26 per cent charged only nominal fees not exceeding Rs. 5 per month. These schools (nearly 60 per cent of all) provided mostly for the poor and lower middle classes and thus fulfilled an acute need of this section of the society. On the other hand, the 17 per cent that charged tuition fees from Rs. 6/- to Rs. 20/- per month could be available mainly to the upper middle and upper socio-economic groups; and out of these, the eight per cent charging between Rs. 11/- to Rs. 20/- could perhaps be considered as exclusive for the well-to-do.

Two of the better schools, viz., *Balghar* of Shahibag, Ahmedabad, and *Chetan Balwadi* of the Faculty of Home Science, Baroda University, charged fees according to the parents' income and also awarded some freeships. If this example were followed by some of the other good schools, they could enable the lesser income-groups also to avail of their education. It would also not cause them much loss of income. This practice has not gained popularity, perhaps because of practical difficulties that it would involve.

As regards tiffin fees, out of the 45 schools providing snack or lunch, 18 did so free of cost to the pupils. It is noteworthy that the majority of these did not charge any tuition fees also, and the remaining charged nominal fees. Some of these schools provided only germinating gram, vegetable or seasonal fruit; some gave only milk; while a few others gave a good break-fast or lunch. This is a big service rendered by these schools to their pupils.

In the remaining cases also, the majority of which charged fees between 25 *naya paisa* (quarter of a rupee) to Rs. 2.50 as tiffin fees, the charges were very reasonable in view of the refreshments provided. The same seemed true of conveyance fees, which, in most of the cases where it was above Rs. 7/- per month, was charged on the basis of distance.

To sum up, the cost of education varies from school to school. While on one hand, about 23 per cent of the schools are free, on the other, about 8 per cent charge tuition fees between Rs. 11/- to Rs. 20/- per month. The latter are no doubt very expensive, but it has to be admitted that more often than not, difference in cost is related to difference in the quality of education. This in its turn is due to the disparity of environment, equipments, and the educational qualifications of the teachers. Since a very few can educate their children in more expensive schools, it is very essential that quality of work in the less expensive schools be improved through proper supervision and guidance. As regards the annual per capita expenditure, the 74 schools that provided information could be classified as follows:

TABLE 21

Per Capita Expenditure in Some Pre-primary Schools

Annual per capita expenditure	Below Rs. 50/-	Rs. 51-100	Rs. 101-200	Above Rs. 200	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6
No. of schools	32	31	9	2	74

It is not difficult to see from these figures that about 32 per cent of the schools (Column 2) were very poorly provided. But it is not surprising in view of the fact that about 50 per cent were either free or charging nominal fees (Table 20). India will have to have a much richer economy before she could have many well-provided and yet inexpensive pre-schools.

PRE-PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

That pre-primary education needs teachers with specialized training seems to have been recognized rather late as judged from the fact that though the earliest of the existing

preschools were started before the last quarter of the 19th century, the first of the training-institutions were established not earlier than 1935. Their growth has also been rather slow, since in the course of 20 years (1935-57) only about 28 institutions have come up and the position has not improved much in more recent years. Of these 28, seven are affiliated to the NBSS; the Montessori and Nursery Methods claim five each; and the system followed by another five is not clear in the absence of any information from them. Out of the remaining six, three are kindergarten or kindergarten-cum-nursery and the other three seem to belong to the pre-basic. As the chief pre-basic training centre at Sevagram is almost dormant now, there is reason to conclude that training facilities in the pre-basic method are most meagre.

Information in respect of their sources of income was available from only eight of the training institutions. This, however, revealed that fees covered only a small part of the total expenditure of these institutions. Government grant, ranging from 20 to 50 per cent of the expenditure, was available to half of the institutions. Some of these received a certain amount as donations, and in nearly all, the managements contributed the balance to meet the expenditure. Managements' share also ranged from 20 per cent to 50 per cent of the expenses, in majority of cases this being about 40 per cent.

The management, in all the nine cases that provided information, rested in the hands of private organizations. One of these, the AMI is the Indian branch of a foreign organization, and another a missionary body, the rest being native organizations. On scrutinising the complete list of the 28 training institutions, it was again revealed that only four of them were run by the state governments and the rest were privately managed.

The contribution of private organizations in this sphere is, thus, commendable. Government needs to come forward with more generous aid to many more of the pre-primary teacher training institutions, which will not only encourage them, but also help to improve their quality of training. The institutions also need to work harder to convince the government of the usefulness of their work and show that they deserve such aid.

AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS OF PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

A survey of pre-primary institutions makes it amply clear that one of the main forces that have worked for the development of pre-primary education in India was private effort and enterprise. Individuals as well as various big and small private organizations have worked for this cause. Though detailed information has come forth only from about 21 such agencies, it seems clear that there are several more working in the field. In contrast to these, there are at present only three government agencies, viz., (i) the Central Institute of

Education, Delhi; (ii) the Indian Council of Child Welfare (ICCW) and (iii) the Central Social Welfare Board, which have made some contribution, directly or indirectly, to the furtherance of child education. Many of the private organizations too are not specifically educational but also work for child and juvenile welfare. Institutions like the NBSS, the AMI, the Nursery School Project (Madras-7) and the *Shishu Vihar Mandal* (Yeotmal, M.P.), are purely educational in nature and are devoted specially to the cause of pre-school education. They conduct both schools and training centres. Institutions like the *Hindustani Talimi-Sangh* (Sevagram, Wardha) and the Happy Education Society (Delhi) conduct pre-school education as part of their wider educational projects. The sphere of others like the *Balkanjī Bari* (Bombay) and the *Kishore Dal* (Patna) is broader and includes various child conduct welfare activities such as the organization of play centres and clubs, libraries, and child guidance clinics, arranging of games and sports, debates and discussions, excursions and camps, convening of meetings and conferences, etc.

A study of the development of these organizations shows that the earlier of these were started in the 1920s, and all but five (including the three government organizations) were established before India's independence in 1947. These efforts on the part of the people to conduct their own institutions for children seem to be, to some extent, a counterpart of India's national struggle for political independence. More obviously, however, there were indications of people's general awareness of the need for child education and welfare, and for a reform in the existing system of education.

As is to be expected, some of these organizations have worked more efficiently than others. The factors that have contributed towards their success seem to be mainly the clarity of purpose and earnestness of effort, which have in many cases won popularity for these bodies as also more tangible appreciation in the form of grants from the government and donations from the people. On the other hand, the main handicap of many of these has been financial, which also denied them the services of trained and paid workers and thus adversely affected their efficiency.

On the whole, there is a felt need for a supervisory body, preferably of an all-India status, to guide, coordinate and vitalise the child education activities of these voluntary organizations. The Indian Council of Child Education, conceived in the year 1944 and started in 1946, seems to have ceased functioning for the last few years. At the All-India Child Education Conference held at Delhi in January 1955 with the joint efforts of the Government and the people, there was again a move to form such an all-India body, and it is rather unfortunate that the proposal has not yet materialised.

ADMINISTRATION

Taking into account the fact that the five clear components¹ of the process of administration are (i) planning, (ii) organization, (iii) direction, (iv) coordination and (v) evaluation¹, it would not be very incorrect to say that there exists no such thing as the administration of pre-primary education in India. Though a few state governments like those of the erst-while Bombay and Madras and a few voluntary agencies like the NBSS and the AMI have done some work which has the semblance of administration, they have left aside one or more of these essentials. Thus, no state government has given much thought to planning, directing, and evaluating pre-school education; and evaluation stands more or less neglected under private organizations also.

As it is, under the Indian Constitution, education is a state subject. The Central Government helps the work by working as a policy making, co-ordinating, and helping agency, by collecting and disseminating information and by sponsoring schemes of all-India significance. Pre-primary education has hence not received much attention at the Union Government level, and its agencies like the Social Welfare Board and the ICCW have at the most given financial support to some pre-primary institutions. The second and the third five-year plans make an incidental reference to this stage of education, perhaps because the modest goal set in the First Five-Year Plan remains unachieved.

Even the policy of central assistance to the states is not clearly defined. The Central Ministry of Education provides a lump amount for grant in the combined field of pre-primary, primary, basic and social education. This policy is not desirable, since it does not give any clear idea to the public or the state governments as to what amount is provided for what purpose. In fact, separate amounts should be properly earmarked as grants to pre-primary, primary, basic and social education, and under each head separate allocation should be made for important sub-heads like teacher education, buildings, equipment, books for library, etc. with certain latitude for reappropriation among the different sub-heads.

The First Five-Year Plan frankly acknowledged that pre-school education had remained neglected although it was “—all the more important in this country in view of the extremely depressing conditions of home life in most cases”², but it also made clear that the government could not be expected to do much. It further remarked:

¹ S. N. Mukerji. *Secondary School Administration*. Baroda, Acharya Book Depot, 1959. p. 6.

² *The First Five-Year Plan*. pp. 533

In view of the shortage of funds Government can accept only limited responsibility in this field, confined to research in evolving methods suited to our needs, training of teachers, helping private agencies who take up the work in the rural areas by grants-in-aid, and running a few model *balwadis* or nursery schools in each state. In labour areas, it should be the responsibility of industry. In other areas the major burden should be borne by local bodies.¹

There could be no grudge regarding government's taking only 'limited responsibility' in the sphere of pre-school education. But, the disappointing feature is that the state governments have not gone ahead to fulfil even their limited responsibility. No researches have been undertaken, and not much provision has been made for the training of teachers. The scheme of opening model *balwadis* which could provide much impetus to the work of voluntary organizations, remain far from implemented. The local bodies, as seen earlier, have been still slower in shouldering their responsibility. In short, as an official committee remarked:

There is nothing like a national policy in regard to pre-primary education and that due to paucity of funds, expansion of pre-primary education has been left mainly to voluntary organisations.²

Though in the socialistic pattern of society that Free India aims at, the wide spread participation of the people in the task of educating the child during his most formative years is essential, the government cannot be absolved from their responsibility for providing at least the required guidance supervision and help.

¹ *Ibid.* p. 553.

² Estimates Committee. *Elementary Education*. Delhi Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. p. 5.

INTRODUCTION

THE TWIN ASPECTS. — The administration of primary education in India has two major aspects, each of great magnitude and complexity. These aspects are: the attainment of the goal of universal primary education as envisaged in *Article 45* of the Indian Constitution and the implementation of Basic Education as a pattern of national education at the universal education stage.

Both these aspects are far from being simple or easily manageable. A reference to the existing position in the progress of universal, primary education in the age-group 6-14 and of Basic Education Scheme in the country as a whole would reveal the magnitude of the task confronting the educational administrators and planners in the field of primary education.

The framers of our Constitution laid down that "the State shall endeavour to provide within a period of 10 years from the commencement of the Constitution for free and compulsory primary education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years". According to this Constitutional directive, primary education ought to have been made universal and free by 1960 for children who have completed the age of 14 years. But this goal has not been reached. What could be achieved by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan is only 61 per cent of enrolment in the age group 6-11 and 22.6 per cent in the age group 11-14. There are still 222.2 lakhs children in the age group 6-11 and 24.3 lakhs in the age-group 11-14 to be enrolled in schools. In addition to this colossal task of additional enrolment, the administrators are confronted with equally huge and intricate task of establishing an additional 70 thousand primary schools all over the country in such a way that there is a school within an easy walking distance of every child of the compulsory education stage, and of retaining every child enrolled upto the completion of primary stage. The additional enrolment and school provision would require about 4.1 lakhs of additional teachers. It would again involve the problem of expanding the training facilities for them. In brief, the administration of universal primary education is the biggest single task facing the country today.

* We regret very much to record that while this book was in the press, Prof. Parulekar passed away. In his demise, India has lost a veteran educationist and a great son of hers. May his soul rest in peace! — *Editor*.

Since basic education has been accepted as the national pattern of primary education, it goes without saying that all the primary schools in the country should be converted into basic schools. So far the progress achieved is far from satisfactory. In 1956-57 the pupils in basic schools formed about 20.9 per cent of the total enrolment in primary schools.¹ This percentage is estimated to rise to 23.3 by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan.² But, then the progress is very slow. The Planning Commission Panel on Education has recommended that the conversion of all primary schools into basic schools should be completed along with the fulfilment of the Constitutional directive. This is an additional task of great magnitude and complexity for the educational administrators. The Assessment Committee on Basic Education appointed by the Government of India in 1957 has pointed out many weaknesses in the present working of basic education in the country. The improvement of the existing basic schools and setting up of well equipped and properly staffed new basic schools are additional headaches for the educational administrators.

This brief resume of the existing situation in respect of universal primary education and basic education would help the reader to understand the magnitude and complexity of the nature of administration of primary education in the country.

AGENCIES INVOLVED IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Under the Constitution, education has been made a state subject. That is to say, the state governments are responsible for the administration and finance of education at all levels in their respective state areas. This is true so far as secondary and university education and other fields of education (not including higher scientific and technical education) are concerned. But primary education is the responsibility of not the state governments only but of governments at all levels, i.e., of the Central Government, local bodies and other authorities also. This would be clear if *Article 45* of the Constitution is read in the context of the *Article 36* and *Article 12* of Part III of the Constitution which would show that the word 'state' as used in the *Article 45* includes "the Government and the Parliament of India, the government and legislature of each of the states and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India."

Thus constitutionally primary education is the responsibility of government at all levels. This makes it clear that the agencies which have to shoulder the responsibility of the administration of the primary education are the Central Government, state governments, local bodies and other authorities such as N.E.S. Block, etc. We would briefly consider the part that these agencies play in the administration of primary education in the country in the next three sections.

¹ *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I. p. 303.

OUR APPROACH. — In the study of the administration of primary education, we would first deal with the first aspect, i.e., the administration of universal compulsory and free, primary education. We will then consider the second aspect, i.e., the administration of basic education. Under each aspect, we would discuss the roles of the principal agencies involved in the administration of primary education and also some of its major problems. A separate section will be devoted to the discussion of developmental schemes under the first three national five-year plans in respect of universal and basic education and the finance of primary education as a whole.

THE ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Introduction

As stated in the preceding page, the Government of India is a partner with the state governments, local bodies and other 'authorities' in the gigantic enterprise of making primary education universal and free in the age-group of 6-14 for about nine crores of children. Its other functions are to provide leadership, guidance and advice to state governments, local bodies and the private bodies in the field of primary education, and to co-ordinate the schemes of improvement and expansion of different states.

Organisation in the Ministry of Education

One of the nine divisions in the Union Ministry of Education takes care of the functions and responsibilities of the Government of India with regard to primary and basic education.¹ In view of the great importance attached to primary and basic education in the national system of education and the highest priority given to it under the national five-year plans of educational reconstruction and expansion, the Government of India has appointed a special adviser (Primary Education) who is in charge of this Division in the Ministry. The Education Secretary also directly supervises the work done in this Division.

The Division of Primary and Basic Education has a number of sections which deal with subjects such as state's schemes on pre-primary, elementary and basic education, teachers' salaries, relief to the educated unemployed, the medium of instruction for children of the minority communities, the elementary stage, the provision of compulsory education and the basic education under the five-year plans, the girls' education, the provision of hostels, the production of children's literature, etc. A separate unit has been set up in the Ministry for the work relating to the All-India Council for Elementary Education. This Unit not only functions as the Secretariat of the Council but also undertakes to collect,

¹ *Supra.* pp. 38-39.

study and disseminate experiences of one state to other states in the field of primary education.

Advisory Bodies

INTRODUCTION. — We have seen in the preceding paragraph the administrative machinery within the Union Ministry of Education through which the functions and responsibilities of the Government of India in respect of primary education are mainly discharged. But there are two very important advisory bodies of the Government which also assist it in its functions regarding providing leadership, guidance and advice to the state governments in primary education. These advisory bodies are: the Central Advisory Board of Education and the All-India Council for Elementary Education. We will briefly consider the part played by these two bodies in relation to the Central Government's role in primary education.

THE CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD OF EDUCATION. — The C.A.B.E. has one standing committee on Elementary and Basic Education which reviews, examines and reports on issues coming before the Board in respect of primary and basic education. The deliberations and the recommendations of the C.A.B.E. have been extremely useful to both the Union Government and the state governments in formulating and implementing their policies in education. In the recent years, considerable advance in primary and basic education could have been achieved owing to the expert advice given by the Board on several vital issues connected with it. Some of the recommendations of the Board are cited below to give the reader an idea about the useful service that the Board has been rendering in the effective administration of primary education:

1. The adoption of basic education as the pattern of education at the primary stage;
2. The progressive conversion of traditional type of primary schools to basic ones;
3. The relationship of the state governments and local bodies in the administration of primary education;
4. The improvement in the salary of primary school teachers and the central assistance for it;
5. The consideration of the economical devices such as the shift system and the single teacher schools to reduce the cost of universal education;
6. The consideration of the ways and means to reduce wastage and stagnation at the primary stage;
7. Conducting an all-India survey of primary education to assess 'the number and population of school-less villages and the manner in which the new schools could be started so as to avoid overlapping and achieve maximum effect at minimum cost';
8. Preparation of a Model Act on compulsory primary education, etc. etc.

These are some of the several areas and items of advice tendered in the recent years by the CABE to the Union Government and the state governments. By reviewing from time to time the progress achieved by different states under their developmental schemes of improvement and expansion under the five-year plans, the CABE has been acting as it were as a watch dog on behalf of the Government of India over state efforts in universal primary education. Its deliberations have been also extremely useful in co-ordinating the work of state governments and thus in accelerating the pace of universal education.

THE ALL-INDIA COUNCIL FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. — The Council was set up by the Government of India by a Resolution of the Ministry of Education dated 17th June, 1957. The main purpose for establishing the Council was to secure expert advice to speed up the programme of improvement and expansion in primary education so that the Constitutional directive in respect of universal primary education can be fulfilled within a reasonable period of time. Incidentally, the Council was also intended to help the Government of India in its duties and responsibilities in regard to providing state governments proper guidance and leadership and co-ordinating their programmes in primary and basic education.

The setting up the Council was accorded mixed reception in the country. It was hailed by some as a "late step in the right direction"; while others doubted its usefulness and effectiveness in contributing significantly towards accelerating the pace of expansion of primary education in the face of shortage of funds and the shortage of trained teachers. For instance, the *Hindustan Standard* (dated 11th January 1958) commented that "the factors of failures in primary education are considerable. The state has no funds, society could not offer enough teachers and the leaders were too pre-occupied with the matters political." The *Amrita Bazar Patrika* (dated 11th January 1958) was critical of the overloading of officials on the Council.

It is true that finance available to education is going to decide ultimately the pace of improvement and expansion in all fields of education, yet there is a need of an all-India body to prepare a programme of action for the early implementation of *Article 45* of the Constitution. Universal, free primary education being a joint responsibility of the Central Government, state governments and local bodies, the representation of these agencies on the Council is indispensable. However, the Council and the government at all levels would stand to gain if educationists who have first hand experience of problems of primary education are also included in a sufficiently large number in the Council. It is also difficult to appreciate the current policy of the Government of India of involving intimately the officials of the Ministry of Education in the management of the advisory bodies. There

should be rethinking on the part of the Government and it should set up important bodies like the Council on statutory, autonomous or semi-autonomous basis, with ample funds and authority assigned to them so that they can do useful and effective work in consultation with the state governments.

It is too early to judge the effectiveness of the work of the Council. But one thing is certain. The Council has pin-pointed the vital issues involved in the effective implementation of the Constitutional directive on universal primary education. Some of these issues are:

1. Ways and means of improving attendance in primary schools and the introduction of incentives such as free mid-day meals, free books, etc. before introducing compulsory attendance through legislation;
2. Selection and training of teachers at the primary stage and the improvement of their status and qualifications;
3. Special facilities for teachers in tribal areas;
4. Wastage and stagnation at the primary stage;
5. Minimum age for admission to Standard I;
6. Model legislation for introducing free and compulsory primary education;
7. Block as a primary unit for educational planning, development and administration;
8. The character of local participation in the administration of primary education;
9. Experimental pilot projects for universal primary education in rural areas;
10. The physical targets in respect of universal primary education under the five-year plans, etc.

The advisory functions of the Government of India in the administration of primary education will be clear from the brief discussion given on the programme of work of the two advisory bodies of the Union Government on primary education. The Central Government's role in primary education would be further clear from the discussion of its recent schemes and activities in primary education which would be provided in the next few paragraphs.

Recent Schemes and Activities of the Central Government in Primary Education

Under this heading we will discuss the following: (1) The all-India Educational Survey; (2) The draft model legislation on compulsory primary education; (3) Expansion of training facilities for primary school teachers; (4) Relief of the educated unemployment; (5) Emergency teacher training; (6) Improvement in the salary of

primary school teachers; (7) Housing for teachers in rural areas; (8) The experimental pilot projects for universal primary education in rural areas; (9) The expansion of primary education of girls; (10) Text-books for primary schools; and (11) Production of literature for children of primary stage. It may be noted that the developmental schemes in primary and basic education and the federal financing of primary and basic education would be dealt with under separate sections.

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY. — In 1957, the Government of India carried out, in close co-operation with the state governments, an educational survey of India and identified and enumerated every distinct rural habitation in all states,¹ delimited the area served by every existing school and made recommendations to the state governments on the precise location of the new schools to be opened hereafter by grouping the habitations in such a way so as to avoid all duplication and over-lapping. A very important fact of this survey is the preparation of the district-wise statistical tables showing the results of the survey. This survey is of very great practical assistance in locating the new schools to be opened under the five-year plans. It is a great step towards reducing the time-lag and towards the better utilization of finance to achieve universal education in the foreseeable future inasmuch as it would ease one of the most intricate problems of the location of schools.

DRAFT MODEL LEGISLATION FOR COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Another very vital step towards reaching the goal of universal primary education taken by the Government of India relates to making the legal machinery for the enforcement of compulsory primary education more effective. Most of the State Acts on compulsory education have been found defective in enforcing compulsory education effectively. The Ministry of Education has recently prepared the draft of a model act on compulsory primary education which could be adopted by all state governments with a few amendments here and there to suit local conditions. The salient features of this proposed act are as under:

1. A better and more accurate definition of terms such as 'specified area', 'academic year' and 'child';
2. A clear enunciation of the provisions relating to the issue of notification regarding the introduction of compulsory education by the state government;
3. Simultaneous introduction of compulsion for boys and girls;
4. Clear enunciation of steps involved in the preparation of a scheme of compulsory education and its sanctions;

¹ The Educational Survey did not cover West Bengal and the Union Territories of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Laccadive, Minicoy and Amandive Islands.

5. Suggestion of provisions which could be applied if a local body ignores the directive given by the state government in respect of preparing schemes for compulsory education;
6. Suggestion of provisions to be applied for the progressive introduction of compulsory education;
7. Specific definition of 'necessary facilities' a term used by the local bodies in their schemes of compulsory education, but hitherto not defined in the State Primary Education Acts;
8. Suggestions for preparing forms and registers about the list of children to whom the scheme of compulsion applies, with a view to evolving a standard pattern;
9. Improved provisions and rules about the determination of reasonable excuse for non-attendances;
10. Better provisions and more clear and precise rules for putting the attendance order in practice; and
11. A clear definition of 'the attendance authority' and better enunciation of his functions than those obtaining in the State Acts on compulsory education.

EXPANSION OF TRAINING FACILITIES FOR PRIMARY TEACHERS. — With increased enrolment and opening of more schools, there should be corresponding expansion in the training facilities for teachers. This is all the more true at the primary stage, where it is essential that the modicum of education provided should be good enough to enable the children to be future responsible citizens. Particularly at this stage, all teachers should be trained so that they might successfully meet the demands of large-scale conversion to the basic pattern. In India, the percentage of trained primary teachers is low. It was 62.3 in 1956-57. It was calculated to go down as a result of the heavy recruitment of additional teachers for staffing new schools opened during the Second Five-Year Plan. The Government of India provides a grant-in-aid of 100 per cent to state governments on their approved schemes about establishing new training institutions and increase the intake of the existing ones.

The shortage of trained women teachers is a problem in itself. Under the Second Five-Year Plan, the Government of India had sponsored a scheme which included some sub-schemes which did not involve expenditure and some for which the government had made financial provision. In the first category fall the sub-schemes on raising the age of recruitment of women teachers, relaxation in their educational qualifications, relaxation of rules for part-time employment in their case, employing them in boys' and girls' schools at the primary stage, giving preference to married men teachers whose wives have received some education, reserving for them places in training institutions, permitting girl students to appear as private candidates at examinations, adopting co-education at

the primary stage, introducing shift system for boys and girls and providing special curriculum in girls' schools.

The sub-schemes on which the Government of India offered grants are:

1. Free accommodation for women teachers in rural areas;
2. Appointments of school mothers in rural areas;
3. Organisation of condensed and special courses of general education and teachers' training for adult women;
4. Stipends for women teachers for "teachers' training courses" at the undergraduate level;
5. Refresher courses for trained women teachers; and
6. Stipends for girls studying in Standards VIII to XI provided they take to teaching for 5 years at least.

During the third five-year plan period, an additional 4.1 lakh primary teachers will be required. The Government of India has, therefore, planned, to increase the existing training facilities for primary teachers so that the output of the training institutes may be near about 33,500 a year. The schemes started during the second five-year plan period would be continued and the programme be accelerated. It has been planned to raise the percentage of the trained primary teachers to 75 at the end of the Third Five-Year Plan and to 100 at the end of the fourth plan period.

RELIEF OF THE EDUCATED UNEMPLOYED. — The Government of India first sponsored a scheme to appoint about 80,000 additional teachers during the first plan period with a twofold purpose: one of giving relief to the educated unemployed and the second of getting the teachers for the additional schools opened. A similar scheme entitled 'Relief of Educated Unemployment and Expansion of Primary Education' for the appointment of 60,000 more primary teachers has been introduced under the Second Five-Year Plan. The scheme should not only be continued under the Third Five-Year Plan too, but also it should be so planned that the backward states would derive larger benefit from it than the advanced and richer states.

EMERGENCY TEACHER TRAINING. — Right from the first plan period, the need for giving untrained teachers, appointed under the scheme of 'Relief for the Educated Unemployed', short orientation training before posting them to schools has been recognised by the Government of India. It directed the state governments to organise training centres or camps of about six weeks' duration. "The purpose, the number and the size of these will

depend upon special needs and circumstances". Syllabus for emergency teacher training was also prepared by the Union Ministry of Education. These short orientation courses have been found useful for untrained teachers, although its duration should be increased to 8 weeks from 6 weeks so that the participants could be given experience in practice teaching. It would be useful to continue this short training during the Third Five-Year Plan as well.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE SALARY OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS. — Prior to 1957, a great disparity prevailed in the pay scales of primary teachers in the different states. For instance, the initial pay of the trained non-matriculate primary teacher was in one state Rs. 30, 3 states Rs. 35, 3 states Rs. 40, one state Rs. 47½, 3 states Rs. 50 and 2 states Rs. 55. Even in the same state, it differed from management to management. For instance, in Andhra Pradesh the pay scales for higher elementary grade trained teachers in government schools, local bodies schools and private schools were respectively Rs. 30-1-50, Rs. 30-1-45 and Rs. 27-½-30. In Mysore, four different pay scales were in operation, viz., ex-Mysore State Scale, Bombay-Karnatak Scale, Hyderabad-Karnatak Scale and Madras-Karnatak Scale. In order to bring about an uniformity in the pay structure of the primary teachers, the Union Ministry of Education held a conference of the state education secretaries and directors of education in 1955. The conference recommended a minimum basic salary of Rs. 40 and Rs. 50 for the untrained and trained primary teachers respectively. However, this recommendation could not be implemented as "it was not found advisable to enforce a uniform minimum scale all over the country as it was for the states to decide the salary scales, they could afford according to their available resources."¹ But then the Union Ministry of Education requested the states to suggest 'reasonable' salary scales for primary school teachers in keeping with the prevailing practices and the local conditions including cost of living. The Ministry has agreed to give financial assistance to state governments to the tune of 50 per cent of the additional expenditure that they shall have to incur in implementing the approved revised pay scales for their primary teachers. The basic national minimum that has been decided by the Government of India is Rs. 40 per month for untrained and Rs. 50 for trained primary teachers. The basic national minimum, even though low and unsatisfactory could not be implemented in all states.² There are, however, in some states teachers whose basic salary even now is less than this national minimum. The Government of India has proposed in the Draft Third Five-Year Plan to raise the salaries of all such teachers to the national minimum.³

¹ *Report of the Estimates Committee on Elementary Education (1957-58)*, p. 19.

² *The Draft Third Five-Year Plan on Education*, p. 48.

³ *Ibid.* p. 28.

This measure to improve the salary of primary teachers illustrates the complex role of the Government of India in advising and guiding the state governments in their programme of improvement and expansion, in co-ordinating educational developments in different states and providing financial assistance to enable them to achieve desired progress in the interest of the country.

HOUSING FOR TEACHERS IN RURAL AREAS — The Government of India has a scheme under which it assists the state governments in improving housing facilities in rural areas for primary teachers. As we have seen elsewhere that under a sub-scheme of the expansion of girls' education, women teachers in rural areas have been provided free accommodation. In 1955-56, the Government of India had informed the state governments that "the staff quarters attached to Basic Educational Institutions for which no rent was to be charged should be considered as an integral part of their school building and the Central assistance was made available for their construction on the same basis as for school buildings"¹ The financial assistance of the Central Government to the state governments in this respect is on the basis of 50 per cent grant for both recurring and non recurring expenditure

THE EXPERIMENTAL PILOT PROJECTS FOR UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION IN SELECTED AREAS — In 1944, when the report of the Sargent Committee was submitted to the Government of India, it contained an important recommendation about the need to undertake experimental projects in a few selected areas to try out intensively the experiment of universal, compulsory primary education. A similar proposal was made by the Sixth Development Commissioners' Conference that met in 1957. This proposal was endorsed by the All-India Council for Elementary Education in 1958. It was also accepted by the Government of India in 1958. The Union Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Union Ministry of Community Development decided to set up pilot projects for universal primary education in selected areas after proper surveys of the N.E.S. Blocks were made, "to gain adequate knowledge and experience which would be required for the purpose of introducing universal, free and compulsory elementary education in the whole country as early as possible."² The Government of India has recently sponsored a scheme to organise experimental pilot projects in about 65 selected N.E.S. Block areas distributed among different states. The objectives³ of the projects are:

¹ *Loc. cit.*

² Vide—the Letter of the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, dated 21st November 1957, addressed to all State Governments and Union Territories (An Annexure in the Report of the First Meeting of the All-India Council for Elementary Education, 1958)

³ *Regional Seminars on Primary Education for the Third Five-Year Plan, May-June, 1960.*

PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. To enrol at least 90 per cent of the children in age-group of 6-11 years in each of these blocks;
2. To attain at least 80 per cent attendance of the children that are enrolled in these schools;
3. To reduce stagnation to below 10 per cent;
4. To reduce wastage (whether due to stagnation or to premature leaving of the school) to less than 20 per cent;
5. To enrol in schools voluntarily at least 40 per cent of the children in the age-group of 11 to 14 years in these blocks; and
6. To increase the percentage of literacy for adult people between 14 and 40 years to at least 50 per cent in the case of men and 25 per cent in the case of women.

This scheme has several administrative aspects which include among others, the appointment of a special officer with necessary staff to pilot these experiments in each block, the conduct of a survey of the conditions existing in each selected block area, the working out more precise targets in each area, the planning of a scientific and objective evaluation of the results of the projects, the planning of further experiments in future, the co-ordination of this programme with that of the community development and setting up a special unit in the Union Ministry of Education to co-ordinate the work of these project blocks. These experimental projects, if planned with care and implemented with thoroughness and enthusiasm, will go a long way in providing concrete experience in combating some thorny problems of primary education such as securing the desired enrolment and reducing wastage and stagnation.

EXPANSION OF GIRLS' EDUCATION.— One of the major obstacles in reaching the Constitutional target of universal education is the painfully slow and inadequate expansion of the education of girls of the universal education age. In 1881, for every 1,000 boys at schools, the number of girls under instruction was 46. By 1946-47 the situation improved considerably, but yet for every 100 boys at school only 30 girls were under instruction. This proportion slightly improved by 1956-57, when it rose to 33. But it is far from satisfactory. The development of girls' education is poorer in rural areas than that in urban areas. In 1956-57, the total enrolment of girls in rural areas was a paltry 17.7 per cent as against 89.4 per cent in urban areas. The inadequacy of the development of girls' education is more pronounced in states like Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Kashmir, where the enrolment is below 20 per cent.

In order to bring about improvement in this low enrolment of girls at the primary stage, the Government of India has taken certain positive steps which include, among others, the setting up of a special unit in the Ministry to expedite the programme of the expansion of

girls' education at the primary stage, educating public opinion on the need and importance of girls' education and on co-education, provision of free residential quarters for women teachers in rural areas, provision of scholarships and stipends for women teachers under training, provision of adequate assistance to girls in form of educational material, clothes, etc., special amenities for girls in co-educational schools, hostel provision for girls in rural areas, institution of scholarships and stipends for girls at the middle school and the secondary stage, introduction of diversified courses useful for girls at the secondary stage, etc. With these special measures taken by the government and with more financial aid made available to backward states to speed up girls' education in their areas, appreciable improvement could be effected in the universal, free and compulsory primary education of girls.

TEXT-BOOKS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—The text-books used in primary schools in different states reveal a serious lack of planning. They suffer from several important shortcomings which cannot be ignored in the larger interest of universal primary education. The Government of India, therefore, had set up a Central Bureau of Text-Book Research in 1954 which can be regarded as an important step towards improving both the content and the technical aspects of text-books for primary schools. The main functions of the Bureau are:

1. To make a critical survey of the current text-book literature;
2. To formulate educational criteria and guiding principles for writing text-books;
3. To prepare a comprehensive scheme score cards for appraising text-books; and
4. To make a beginning with the preparation of model text-books.¹

The activities of this Bureau have been mostly confined in the beginning to the text-books of primary schools. To begin with, it has taken up investigations in the preparation of text-books in Hindi, science, history and geography. It is also undertaking studies in the prevailing procedures in different states as regards selecting text-books. The Government of India has been thus discharging its advisory functions through this body. The Bureau has, however, failed in one important function and that is the preparation of model text-books which could have provided concrete guidance to state education departments in remodelling the text-books in vogue in their areas.

PRODUCTION OF LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN.—A useful activity undertaken by the Government of India under the Second Five-Year Plan related to the production of literature and reading material for children of the primary schools. The usefulness of such an activity cannot be questioned. And it is in the fitness of things that such a guiding activity and service be provided by the Central Government. The state governments could extend this activity in their respective areas by undertaking the production of similar books or

¹ *Report of the Estimates Committee on Elementary Education (1957-58)*. p. 29.

supplementary literature in the regional languages. The state governments should also supplement the work done by the Central Government in encouraging authors to prepare good children's books and the publishers and voluntary organisations to undertake the publication of good reading material for children by instituting prize competitions and grant-in-aid.

The schemes and the activities of the Government of India in the field of primary education show the anxiety of a welfare state to provide at the earliest time the modicum of education deemed essential for every citizen. Education being a state subject and its main functions being advisory and of co-ordinating nature, the Central Government could not speed up development at a pace deemed essential by it in the interest of education. What it can do at the most is to persuade the state governments to accept its schemes through its advisory bodies, the state education ministers' conferences, the seminars of state education secretaries and directors. It can also provide liberal grant-in-aid to the states. But much depends upon the state governments. Sometimes the implementation of the schemes on universal primary education is delayed by state governments for one reason or the other. Even the grants sanctioned to state governments are sometimes not fully utilised.¹ This necessitates better planning on the part of state governments and better understanding between the Centre and the states.

STATE GOVERNMENTS AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Introduction

Under the Constitution, education is a state subject. That is to say that almost complete authority for the administration of education (excepting higher technical and scientific education) is vested in state governments. Each state discharges its functions and responsibilities in education through its education department which includes the education minister and his deputy, the education secretary and the directorate of education and the non-official boards or councils which advise the state government on educational policies from time to time.

Organisational Set-up in the State Departments of Education

THE DIRECTORATE OF EDUCATION.—In the post-independence era, the importance of primary and basic education has increased tremendously. It has come to be identified with mass education, that is, the minimum of education that every citizen without any distinction of caste, creed or sex ought to possess. State governments have, therefore, accorded primary and basic education a place of high priority in their schemes of educational recon-

¹ For instance, the percentage of grant not utilised in 1956-57 was 65.7 in case of 1 state; it ranged from 40 to 51 per cent in case of 4 states, 20 to 30 per cent in 3 states and from 16 to 20 per cent in 4 states.

struction and expansion. The importance attached to it can be appreciated from the fact that in many states where the post of a joint secretary or and an additional director of education is provided, the portfolio of primary education is being handled by this officer. The usual practice in states is also to put a high officer in the directorate of education of the rank of the deputy director in charge of the state schemes of improvement and expansion of primary and basic education.

STATUTORY BODIES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION — Many states have accepted the principle of associating closely the non-official opinion in formulating their educational policies. This is seen from the standing advisory boards to the state governments set up in different fields of education. Some states have also created statutory boards. But the number of states having statutory boards in primary education is very small.

Bengal was the first province to create a statutory board of primary education.¹ The lead given by Bengal in this respect was followed up by the Bombay Province which created a similar board under the Bombay Primary Education (Amendment) Act of 1938. The constitution, powers and duties of this board are described at length in the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947. The Maharashtra Board consists of twelve members of whom six are elected by the school boards and the remaining six, of whom not more than three are government officers and are appointed by the state government. The powers and duties of the board are as follows:

1. To examine and recommend schemes for the organisation, co-ordination and expansion of primary education with the system of education as a whole in the state;
2. To advise the state government generally on all matters connected with primary education; and
3. To exercise such other powers and to perform such other duties as may be prescribed.

The other states having statutory boards of primary education are Assam and Bihar. The Assam Board was created under the Assam Primary Education Act, 1947. But the functions of this board differ materially from those of the statutory boards of the other two states. The board functions in lieu of local bodies and not as their co-ordinating authority in the state. The Bihar Board has the power to organise and control basic education and institutions for teacher education in the state.

¹ Chapter II of the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930 provided for setting up a Board of Primary Education with four elected members by District Local Boards, seven nominated members and with the D.P.I. as the Chairman. Vide — Provisions 58 and 59 of the Act.

It would thus be seen that the development of statutory boards of primary education is very slow and unsatisfactory in states. Such boards can play an effective role in giving momentum and pace to schemes of improvement and expansion in primary education. The importance of such boards was recognised by the Kher Committee on "The Relationship between State Governments and Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education", which recommended:

Such a board serves as a clearing house for ideas and can materially assist state governments in policy drafting by making them conversant with the views of non-official experts and representatives of local bodies. We, therefore, recommend that every state should create a statutory State Board of Primary Education to serve as an important connecting link between non-official experts, the education department and local bodies associated with the administration of primary education.¹

The recommendation of the Kher Committee has not been implemented. It is a sorry fact of the administration of primary education in India.

Some Problems of Administration

INTRODUCTION — We will now briefly consider some outstanding problems of the administration of primary education at the state level. Among these, we would include the following:

1. The provision for primary education in state budgets,
2. Immense variations in the enrolment in primary classes;
3. The provision of schools in different states;
4. The uneven development of girls' education at the compulsory education stage in different states;
5. The needs of different states regarding trained primary teachers; and
6. The primary education of the children of backward classes and tribes.

THE PROVISION FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE STATE BUDGETS. — The Committee on 'Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development' appointed by the Government of India in 1950 had suggested that every state government should spend 20 per cent of its total receipts from revenues on education. In 1951-52, the position regarding the states spending on education was far below the standard laid down by the committee. On an average, the part 'A' States spent 14.4 per cent of their total revenue on education. The similar percentages for Part 'B' and Parts 'C', and 'D' were 15.8 and 13.9 respectively. As regards the percentages of the education budgets for primary education, Bombay led the

¹ *Report of the Committee on the Relationship between the State Governments and the Local Bodies.* Ministry of Education, New Delhi, 1954. p. 83.

rest of the states with a percentage of 66.5. On an average the percentages for Part 'A', Part 'B', and Part 'C' and 'D' states were respectively 54.0, 43.2 and 31.9. For the satisfactory administration of primary education, a state should normally spend at least 60 per cent of its receipts on education. That was also the recommendation of the Kher Committee referred to earlier. The present position about spending by different states on education in general and primary education in particular is not known. But the state contribution to education was on the whole satisfactory in 1958-59, in which year the percentage of the education budget to the total budget was more than 20 per cent in all states excepting Bihar (19.5 p.c.), Jammu and Kashmir (15.7 p.c.), Orissa (18.6 p.c.) and Uttar Pradesh (17.9).¹ These figures no doubt present a heartening picture, but the remaining states should endeavour to satisfy the criteria laid down by the Committee on the 'Ways and Means of Financing Education' and the Kher Committee on the "Relationship between the State Government and Local Bodies."

STATE ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY CLASSES. — The Government of India has decided to enrol 81 per cent of the total number of children in the age group of 6-11 by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan. To realise the full implications of this national target, it is necessary to know the present position as regards the enrolment of children in the age-group of 6-11 and the tasks that lie ahead in each state in respect of additional enrolment to be secured by 1965-66.

The present position regarding the enrolment in primary classes reveals marked variations from state to state which considerably aggravates the problem of universal education for the age group of 6-11. It is estimated that in 1960-61 only Kerala State would have reached cent per cent enrolment. In West Bengal the enrolment would be 80 per cent. The states of Assam, Bombay, Madras and Mysore the percentages of enrolment will be between 70 and 74. In the states of Bihar (44 p.c.), Jammu and Kashmir (40 p.c.), Orissa (48 p.c.), Rajasthan (36 p.c.) and Uttar Pradesh (42 p.c.), it will be below 50 per cent. The states of Andhra Pradesh (61 p.c.) and the Punjab (67 p.c.) will be between these two groups.

The actual number of children in the age group of 6-11 that are out of school in each state is as follows:

¹ *Education in India — A Graphic Representation*, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, 1959. p. 3.

TABLE 22

Number of Children in the Age-group of 6-11, Out of Schools

Andhra Pradesh	24.85 lakhs	Mysore	15.02 lakhs
Assam	6.85 "	Orissa	13.80 "
Bihar	38.49 "	Punjab	12.15 "
Maharashtra		Rajasthan	20.34 "
and Gujarat	30.46 "	Uttar Pradesh	70.56 "
Jammu & Kashmir	4.64 "	West Bengal	11.23 "
Madhya Pradesh	21.00 "		
Madras	19.06 "		

The highest number of children of the compulsory age out of school is in Uttar Pradesh. It is about 24.2 per cent of the total non-attending children in the country as a whole. The educationally less advanced states like Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (with a population of 44 per cent) have amongst them about 58 per cent of the total number of children that are outside schools. These figures clearly point out the problems facing different state governments in their drive for the enrolment for universal education in the age-group of 6-11.

THE PROVISION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN STATES. — In this respect also, there are marked variations from state to state which further complicates the already difficult problem of universal primary education. The educational survey conducted by the Central Government referred to earlier has revealed the fact that the states would differ remarkably in respect of new schools needed by them. The magnitude of the task facing different state governments in respect of new primary schools to be opened during the third plan period would be clear from the table following:

TABLE 23

Primary Schools Needed in Different States During the Third Plan Period

State	Total No. of schools proposed in the Survey	Total No. of schools in existence on 31-3-1957	Total No. of new schools needed during the Third Plan Period
Andhra	27,849	22,708	5,141
Assam	14,192	11,001	3,191
Bihar	57,261	26,351	10,910
Jammu & Kashmir	2,825	1,884	941
Kerala	7,938	5,751	2,187
Madhya Pradesh	35,718	20,824	14,894
Madras	19,832	17,979	1,853
Maharashtra and Gujarat	49,300	40,528	8,772
Mysore	21,632	17,875	3,757
Punjab	12,708	11,229	1,479
Rajasthan	17,773	8,933	8,840
Uttar Pradesh	59,637	26,168	33,469
Delhi	220	190	30
Himachal Pradesh	1,931	1,004	927
Manipur	862	671	191
Tripura	1,262	895	367
Total	3,32,311	2,29,023	1,03,288

The figures reveal that Uttar Pradesh has an uphill task to face in providing the new schools needed. The magnitude of the task is also heavy for Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. In fact, the six less developed states of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh need amongst them about 73 per cent of the total additional primary schools required in the country to achieve the physical targets of 81 per cent enrolment under the Third Five-Year Plan. How formidable this task will be for the state governments can be visualised if one bears in mind the fact that in order to make the enforcement of primary education effective, these schools shall have to be provided within an easy walking distance from the home of every child of the compulsory age.

THE UNEVEN PROGRESS IN GIRLS' EDUCATION. — The Report of the National Committee on Women's Education appointed by the Government of India in 1956 has greatly highlighted the wide disparity that exists between the education of girls and boys at different stages of instruction. The table following shows the disparity at the primary stage:

TOTAL NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN EXISTENCE AND SCHOOLS NEEDED IN FUTURE

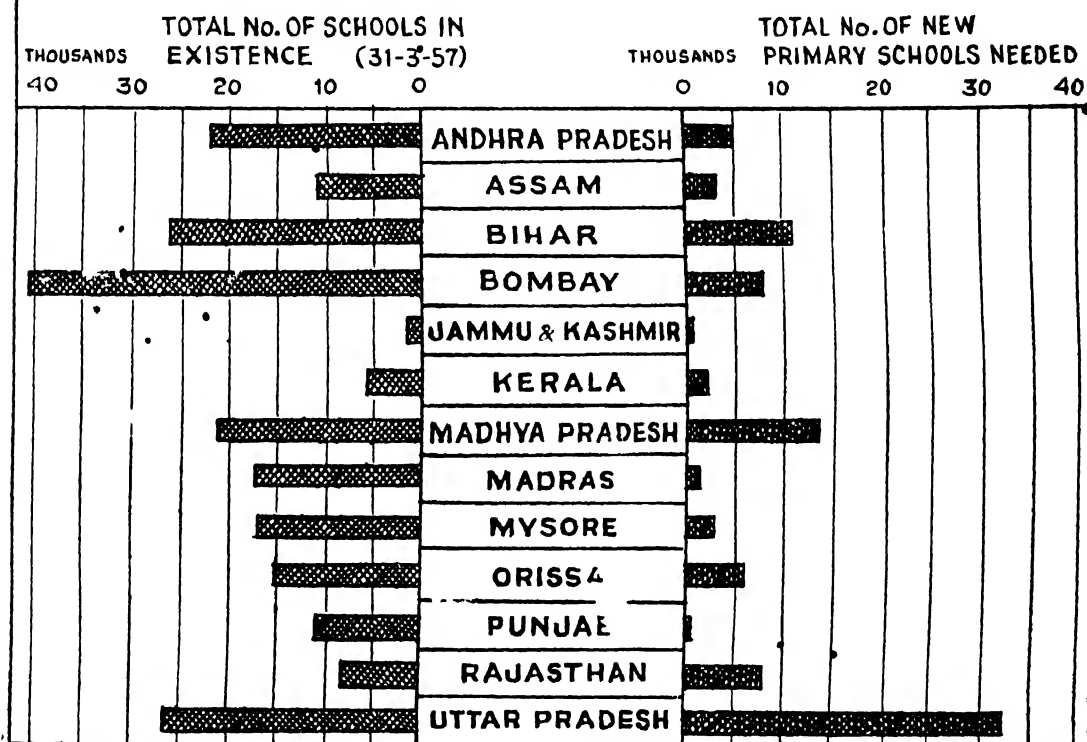


CHART 11

TABLE 24

Percentage of Boys and Girls (in terms of targets for the Second Five-Year Plan)
of the Age-groups of 6-11 and 11-14

States	Age-group 6-11		Age-group 11-14	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Andhra Pradesh	36.9	46.6	27.0	7.6
Assam	50.5	56.2	33.8	15.3
Bihar	56.6	11.7	20.9	2.4
Bombay (Maharashtra and Gujarat)	92.0	63.0	34.0	10.3
Jammu and Kashmir	57.2	12.7	30.0	4.8
Kerala	100.0	100.0	60.8	33.0
Madhya Pradesh	86.4	21.3	21.8	3.8
Madras	98.0	68.6	37.1	15.3
Mysore	98.7	54.3	40.2	11.1
Orissa	65.3	20.4	18.0	1.8
Punjab	100.0	44.9	47.5	9.1
Rajasthan	49.1	10.1	18.3	2.6
Uttar Pradesh	63.7	15.4	25.6	3.9
West Bengal	97.6	59.4	35.0	11.7
A. & N. Islands	75.0	40.0	34.0	10.0
Delhi	98.4	70.5	66.3	30.8
Himachal Pradesh	94.2	23.8	40.9	13.6
Manipur	97.5	90.2	42.3	13.0
Tripura	98.1	76.7	4.3	0.6
N.E.F.A.	20.0	2.6		
Pondichery	53.2	40.2	39.8	29.3
India	86.0	40.0	36.0	10.0

The figures above reveal the extreme backwardness of the states of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and N.E.F.A. in the primary education of girls. Even the all-India figure of girls' education in the age-groups of 6-11 and 11-14 compare very unfavourably with the similar figure for boys' education in the same age-groups. These figures also very clearly show how the success of universal, free and compulsory primary education is intricately tied up with the problem of stepping up the expansion of girls' education. They also reveal the need for intensifying vigorous efforts in the educationally backward states like Jammu and Kashmir, Bihar, Rajasthan, U.P., Orissa and M.P. which have among them about 77.4 per cent of the total 84,734 girls of the age-group of 6-11 that are outside school. Because of this uneven expansion of girls' education in the age-group 6-11, the framers of the Third Five-Year Plan were forced to set the targets of 50 per cent enrolment in the age group 6-11 for the states that are less advanced and 90 per cent enrolment for the advanced states.

THE NEED OF STATES ABOUT TRAINED PRIMARY TEACHERS.—There has been an increasing recognition of the fact that good, imaginative trained teachers are needed to put across any programme of educational reconstruction and especially the vital programme of universal, free and compulsory basic education. States in India show remarkable variations in respect of the trained primary teachers available to them and the training facilities that could be provided by them for primary teachers. For instance, in states like Assam, M.P. and West Bengal, the percentage of the trained primary teachers is less than 40. In the states of Mysore, Orissa and Rajasthan, it is slightly more than 40. The states of Gujarat and Maharashtra have about 50 per cent of trained primary teachers. On the whole, it might be observed that excepting the states of Kerala, Madras and the Punjab, the position of other states in regard to trained primary teachers leaves much to be desired. The magnitude of the task becomes apparent when one bears in mind that to meet the demand of additional enrolment under the Third Five-Year Plan, an additional 3.3 lakhs of teachers shall have to be recruited. The burden on states that have a back-log of untrained teachers to be cleared will be considerable in view of the recruitment of additional teachers.

In the table below the tasks facing each state in respect of providing training facilities to primary teachers and the maximum percentage of trained teachers, which each can reasonably expect to achieve at the end of the Third Five-Year Plan are briefly indicated:

TABLE 25

Problem of Trained Teachers During the Third Plan Period

State	Total No of teachers at the end of Third Five-Year Plan	Total No of trained teachers at the end of Third Five-Year Plan	The percentage of trained teachers at the end of Third Five-Year Plan
Andhra	1,30,000	1,03,000	79
Assam	37,000	25,000	66
Bihar	1,40,000	92,500	66
Gujarat and Maharashtra	1,62,000	1,30,000	80
Jammu & Kashmir	11,500	6,300	55
Madhya Pradesh	90,000	61,000	68
Mysore	69,000	47,500	69
Orissa	46,000	32,500	70
Rajasthan	30,000	30,000	100
Uttar Pradesh	1,56,000	1,02,000	65
West Bengal	1,00,000	57,000	57

In case of the states of Kerala, Madras and Punjab, the percentage of trained teachers is so high that these states do not have any problem as regards the training of primary teachers.

PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

BOYS

1960-61

GIRLS

AGE-GROUP 6-11

STATES

AGE-GROUP 11-14

PERCENTAGE
100 80 60 40 20 0

PERCENTAGE
0 10 20 30 40 50 60

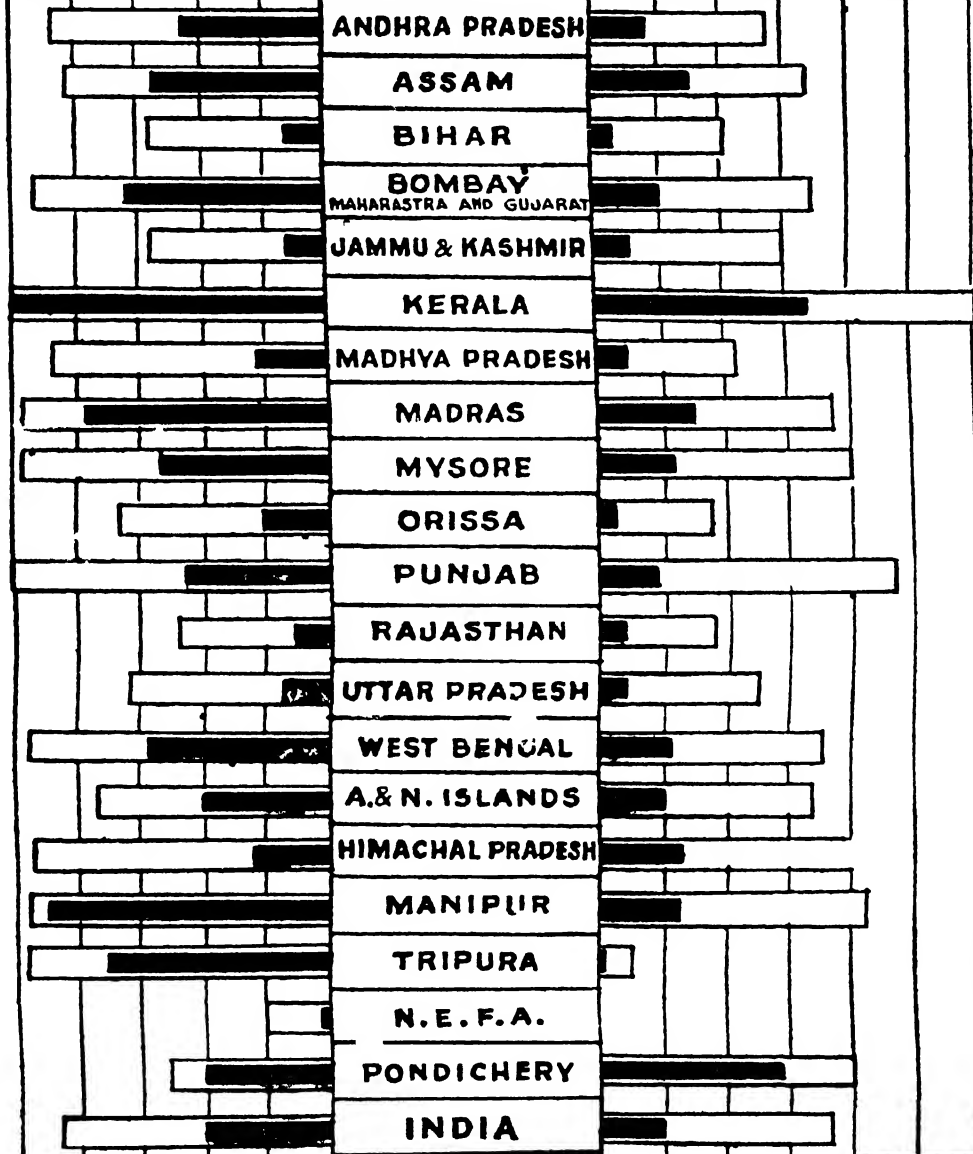


CHART 12

PRIMARY EDUCATION OF THE BACKWARD CLASSES. — Under *Article 46*, a special responsibility has been placed on the state governments to ameliorate the social, economic and educational conditions of the backward classes which would include scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, the denotified communities and other backward communities.

According to the 1951 census, the scheduled castes constituted 14.4 per cent of the total population of the Indian Union. The population figures of scheduled tribes and the denotified communities could be put respectively at 5.3 and 1.1 per cent of the total population. The figures for the other backward communities are difficult to be stated because the basis of their classification varies from state to state. On the whole, it will be safe to put the total population of the backward classes in the country at about 21 per cent.

The administrative problems of providing universal primary education is more formidable in case of scheduled tribes than in the case of other classes of backward communities. Some of the problems facing state governments in this respect are listed below:

1. The inaccessibility of these tribes as they mostly live in forests and hilly regions, where educated persons are generally unwilling to go to work as teachers;
2. The nomadic character of some tribes makes it extremely difficult to enrol their children in primary schools;
3. The ignorance of tribal languages by the non-tribal teachers is a formidable handicap;
4. The difficulty of using tribal languages as the media of instruction at the primary level as most of them have neither script nor literature nor text-books;
5. The absence of community awakening in regard to the education of children;
6. The great cost involved in providing mid-day meals, text-books, educational equipments, clothing and such other incentives to tribal children; and
7. The difficulty of enforcing compulsory primary education in the total absence of a favourable public opinion.

The state governments have to find out solutions to these extremely complex and difficult problems. Even in this respect, some states have more difficult tasks to perform whereas some are favourably placed comparatively.

Conclusion

The brief consideration of some of the vital problems of primary education at state levels shows that the state governments are facing unequal tasks in regard to the administration of primary education. It shows that some states have a larger load of responsibility to shoulder in reaching the Constitutional target of universal primary education, while some are favourably placed in this respect. The ultimate success of the programme of universal primary education would largely depend upon enabling the less advanced states

to march on faster than the advanced states so that they can ultimately reach the goal at the same time. The financial implications of measures to bring about equality of opportunity in different states would be discussed later on in the section on the "Finance of Primary and Basic Education". In addition to the problems discussed in the preceding paragraph, there are the twin problems of wastage and stagnation which are equally formidable and which have been eluding solution ever since they were first spotted out by the Hartog Committee in 1929. In view of the far-reaching consequences of these twin problems, it is thought desirable to discuss them later under a separate section. For want of space, some other important problems of the administration of primary education such as the emergency training courses or short orientation training courses organised by different state governments for their untrained teachers, community participation in the programme of compulsory primary education including enrolment drives and publicity measures adopted by some states like Bihar, Madras and Rajasthan, primary education of the physically handicapped, the problem of facilities to be provided to linguistic minorities for instruction in mother-tongue at the primary stage could not be included for discussion in this section. It is hoped, however, that the brief discussion provided here would help the reader in appreciating the magnitude of the task which confronts different states in India in the administration of universal, free and compulsory primary education in their areas.

THE ROLE OF THE LOCAL BODIES IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION¹

INTRODUCTION.—As stated earlier, the local bodies are a partner of the Central Government and the state government in the administration of primary education in so far as the Constitutional directive under *Article 45* is concerned. In a vast country like India, the administration of primary education to about nine crores of children would be an extremely uphill venture without the close association of local bodies.

THE EXISTING POSITION.—Local bodies are generally associated with the administration of primary education, though this is not true in case of all states of the Indian Union. For instance, in Assam all powers regarding the administration of primary education were withdrawn a few years back from the local bodies. In the Marathwada region of the Maharashtra State, primary education is directly administered by the state government whereas in other regions of the state it is in the hands of authorised municipalities and district school boards. In the Saurashtra and Kutch districts of the new Gujarat State only the district boards are associated with the administration of primary education and the municipalities do not have such association. Similarly in Madhya Pradesh, only in the Mahakoshal Region the local bodies known as the "*janapad*" are vested with the responsibility for the administration of primary education in the Madhya Bharat, Vindhya Pradesh and

¹ A detailed discussion of the role of local bodies in respect of primary has been provided in Chapter V.

Bhopal regions, the administration of primary schools is in the sole hands of the state government. In Jammu and Kashmir, all primary, middle and the junior basic schools are administered by the *tehsil* education officers.

It would thus be seen that the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education is not universal in India—a fact which makes it all the more imperative to define the role of the local bodies in the administration of primary education.

TYPES OF LOCAL BODIES.—States show variations in the types of local bodies associated with the administration of primary education. So far as urban areas are concerned, in most of the states all municipalities are made responsible for the administration of primary education in their areas. But states like Bombay (the old districts of Maharashtra and Gujarat) and Delhi are exceptions to this general practice. In the old Bombay State districts, only bigger municipalities are authorised to administer primary education, the smaller municipalities pay their share of expenditure to the district school board of their district which administers primary education in their areas. In Delhi also, smaller municipalities have been deprived of their powers in regard to the administration of primary education.

In rural areas, a two-tier system of administering primary education is commonly prevalent. The district is the principal unit and the *taluka* is the lower unit. During recent years, with the concept of village *panchayat* coming to be largely accepted in the administration of village, in some states either a village *panchayat* has been accepted as the lower unit of administering primary education or it has been added as a third tier. A fourth tier is also added in states like Bihar. Thus it would be seen that variations prevail in the administration of primary education. In the old Maharashtra and Gujarat districts of the bilingual Bombay State, a district school board at the district level and the *panchayat* at the village level are associated with primary education. In the State of Bihar, at the district level, there are district boards, at the *taluka* or a sub-division of a district level there are local boards and at village level there are union boards or committees for a large group of villages or small groups of villages. In Madhya Pradesh, the *janapad sabha* is the only local body at the sub-division of a district level. In Madras, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, the two-tier systems are district board at the district level and the village *panchayat* at the level of the individual village or a small group of villages. In the West Bengal, district school boards function at the district level and union boards or committees function at the level of a fairly large group of villages.

THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE KHER COMMITTEE.—In 1952, the CABE had appointed a committee under the chairmanship of late Sri B. G. Kher to consider the relationship

of the state governments and local bodies in the administration of primary education. The committee made important recommendations on the subject which were endorsed by the C.A.B.E at its meeting in March 1952. The committee's recommendations were as under:

1. All municipalities should be associated with the administration of primary education in their areas and they should be made to pay a specified contribution to support them;

2. In rural areas, a two-tier system of associating local bodies with the administration of primary education should be adopted everywhere;

3. The residents of the rural area served by a primary school should be associated with the administration in some form or the other. This may be done by giving village *panchayats* the right to supervise the schools in their area in the prescribed manner; and where such *panchayats* do not exist, by establishing *ad hoc* school committees of prominent and interested members; and

4. Either on general considerations or on the basis of actual experiments, the adoption of the *taluka* as a second unit cannot be supported. Therefore as a rule the district should be adopted as the second and the larger unit in the two-tier system of local bodies for association in the administration of primary education in rural areas.¹

WHAT SHOULD BE THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION? — The recommendations of the Kher Committee tried to put an end to the controversy that gathered storm around the question: "What should be the unit of administration of primary education?" As it is clear from the preceding paragraphs, the Kher Committee favoured all municipalities to be associated with the administration of primary education on the principle that such an association would ensure more local participation in a vital enterprise like universalising primary education. For both complying with the requirement of Article 46 of the Constitution and ensuring close association of local people in the administration of primary education, the committee advocated a closer and larger association of the residents of the rural areas in the form of associating village *panchayats* with the administration of primary education or in some other form. The committee categorically rejected the idea of making the *taluka* a unit of the administration of primary education, and favoured a two tier system rather than a single tier system.

What should be really a unit of administration of education at the primary stage? The space here does not permit us to discuss this question in details. We would do better by laying down some fundamental principles which should guide our thinking in deciding this issue.

¹ Report of the Committee on the Relationship Between State Governments and Local Bodies. *op. cit.*, pp. 42-45.

1. The administration of primary education should be taken so close to the people that ultimately every parent should be involved in it;
2. Most of the functions included in the administration of primary education do not require expert knowledge. What is required is the love for children, willingness to serve the local community and a sympathy for the underdog;
3. Local resources in cash and kind should be tapped in promoting primary education;
4. The close association of the local community makes it easier to adjust school curriculum and methods to local needs and goes a long way in tackling effectively the two bugbears of primary education—wastage and stagnation;
5. In a democracy, primary education should not only result in the education of children but also the indirect education of adults so that they can be awakened to their duties and responsibilities as citizens;
6. The administration pattern at the district level, being in operation since long, should continue. But there should be democratic centralisation of executive functions. All over the country village *panchayats* or village level authorities are being established. These authorities could be associated with advantage in the administration of primary education at the village level. The concept of the block being made the primary unit of administration is also gaining ground recently. The block can also be delegated some functions relating to the administration of primary education.

If the above principles are conceded then the three tier system—the district, the village and the block—could be regarded appropriate bodies in the administration of primary education in the country.

WASTAGE AND STAGNATION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

The administration of universal, compulsory and free primary education has three important aspects. They are: universality of provision, universality of enrolment and universality of retention. The first two aspects have been dealt with earlier in this chapter. The third aspect, which pertains to the measures to be taken by the administrators to retain in schools all the children enrolled and thus eliminate or reduce the prevalent huge wastage and stagnation at the primary stage, will be dealt with in this section.

Wastage

THE MEANING OF WASTAGE.—The successful completion of instruction of Std. IV or Std. V is generally considered to be the minimum condition for attaining permanent literacy. The withdrawal of children prior to their passing Std. IV or V would come in their way of attaining permanent literacy and therefore it would constitute wastage.

Opinion is divided on the period of school instruction required to attain permanent literacy. Some educationists think that even with three years of schooling, a child can attain permanent literacy, while some think that the minimum of five years' schooling would be essential for the attainment of permanent literacy. In the absence of sufficient experimental data, it will be difficult to arrive at any definite conclusion on this point. However, for the convenience of administration, it may be assumed that any child withdrawn before he completes the junior basic or primary stage of instruction constitutes wastage.

CALCULATION OF WASTAGE.—The simple and usually adopted procedure of calculating wastage takes into account the total enrolment in Class I in a given year to that in the last class of the junior primary stage after five years. For example, the total enrolment of both boys and girls in Class I in the year 1952-53 was 69.48 lakhs and that the enrolment of pupils in Class IV in 1956-57 was 24.67 lakhs, i.e., 33.9 per cent. The wastage is, therefore 66.1 per cent.

This method of calculating wastage is not accurate inasmuch as it does not take into account the following four types of cases:

1. Children who received a double promotion so that they were in class VI instead of in Class V;
2. Children who failed one year and who were therefore not in Class V when even though they completed the minimum period of five years of schooling deemed essential for attaining permanent literacy;
3. Children who died; and
4. Children who migrated to other areas.

The Regional Seminar organised by the Union Ministry of Education in May-June 1960 to suggest the programme of primary education to be included in the Third Five-Year Plan felt that "it is not correct to argue that the percentage of cases of these types is very small and that it need not be taken into consideration when adopting the rough and ready method of calculating wastage." The present method of calculating wastage thus shows a combined effect of wastage and stagnation and the wastage shown is unduly high. The Union Ministry of Education should, therefore, take early steps to undertake special studies of the problem of wastage in a few selected areas and evolve a more reasonable method of calculating wastage.

THE EXTENT OF WASTAGE.—The extent of wastage in primary education is very large. Ever since the Hartog Committee unearthed 'wastage in primary education', it has remained very high. The table following shows the extent of wastage in percentages in different states for the period 1951-52 to 1955-56.

TABLE 26

Wastage in Primary Education*
1951-52 to 1955-56

State	Percentage of wastage in case of boys	Percentage of wastage in case of girls	Total per- centage of wastage
Assam	71.3	78.6	73.9
Bihar	58.9	81.3	63.0
Bombay	63.7	83.5	72.3
Madhya Pradesh	67.6	78.4	70.1
Madras	53.5	65.7	58.5
Orissa	75.1	88.7	78.4
Punjab	33.3	62.0	41.9
Uttar Pradesh	69.1	78.4	70.8
West Bengal	74.2	84.8	77.3
Hyderabad	69.7	73.4	63.1
Madhya Bharat	64.9	69.1	65.6
Mysore	74.5	82.5	77.5
Pepsu	4.9	34.6	12.1
Rajasthan	54.4	62.6	55.7
Travancore-Cochin	44.8	52.1	48.3
Ajmer	59.3	68.9	62.1
A. & N. Islands	50.0	63.5	54.4
Bhopal	57.4	73.0	60.6
Coorg	17.5	36.7	26.3
Delhi	26.8	26.1	26.6
Himachal Pradesh	48.4	41.1	47.5
Kutch	44.0	40.4	43.0
Manipur	76.4	77.1	76.5
Tripura	50.1	26.8	46.9
Vindhya Pradesh	66.7	76.4	67.6
India	62.4	74.4	66.1

* Ministry of Education *Report of the National Committee on Women's Education* Delhi, 1959 pp 70-73.

It would be seen from the above statistics that there are marked variations among individual states in the extent of total wastage and of wastage in case of boys and girls. Excepting areas like those of Travancore-Cochin, PEPSU, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Manipur, the total wastage in other states is higher than 50 per cent. In the states of Assam, Bombay, Orissa, U.P., M.P., West Bengal, Mysore and Kutch, it is even higher than 70 per cent. In the case of girls, the largest number of states have wastage varying from 60 per cent to 80 per cent. The states of Assam, Bihar, Bombay, M.P., Orissa, U.P., West Bengal and Mysore—the larger states—present a dismal picture. Even in the case of boys.

the wastage percentages do not give a picture that is significantly different from the one regarding the wastage in case of girls. The difference between the percentages of wastage in case of both boys and girls in individual states is not much prominent excepting in a few cases.

CAUSES OF WASTAGE.—There are several causes resulting in wastage in primary education. The most important of them are listed below:

1. The economic difficulties of the average parent to feed and clothe his children, to provide them with books and other educational equipments and to spare them for schooling on a whole time basis till they complete the age of 11 years;
2. When his children fail in examination and are not promoted to higher classes, the village parent, who does not usually value schooling for his children, withdraws them from school;
3. The average primary school is so poor, unattractive and poorly staffed and inadequately equipped that the average child is not inclined to remain therein. This results in his leaving school;
4. The incomplete school in the village and the absence of a full school having five classes in the neighbourhood does not leave any alternative to the child but to discontinue his schooling;
5. Betrothal and marriage in case of girls is a common cause of wastage in rural areas; and
6. About 25 to 30 per cent of wastage is attributed to the indifference of parents.

REMEDIAL MEASURES TO BE ADOPTED.—The few investigations done in India to study the causes of wastage at the primary education stage have revealed that economic causes are responsible for about 65 per cent of wastage, and all other causes put together account for about 35 per cent of wastage. Keeping these findings in mind, the following remedial measures are suggested to combat effectively the stupendous wastage at the primary stage:

1. Permitting part-time attendance to children of poor parents who need their help to supplement the family income. This can progressively be discontinued as the economic conditions of people improve;
2. Part-time instruction will be particularly indispensable in case of girls whose services are needed at home;
3. Any measures adopted to reduce stagnation would help considerably in reducing the extent of wastage;
4. Bringing about improvement in the physical set-up of classrooms and the school, thus making it (the school) more attractive to children. This measure as well as improving the quality of classroom instruction will go a long way in reducing the extent of wastage;

5. Where poverty is the principal reason for not sending children to schools or withdrawing them prematurely from schools, the free supply of books and other educational equipments and even clothing would help in combating the wastage;

6. Steps should also be taken to provide a full primary school within or easy walking distance from the home of every child; and

7. Rigorous enforcement of the provisions of the Compulsory Primary Education Act would tackle effectively those parents that are indifferent to the education of their children. It would thus combat 25 to 30 per cent of cases of wastage.

The Government of India has recently devised a plan to set up pilot experimental projects in a few selected block areas in different states. The intensive study of the causes of wastage can be organised in the block areas included in pilot projects. The results of such studies would better equip the administrators in combating wastage.

Stagnation

THE MEANING OF STAGNATION.—Allied very closely to the problem of wastage is the problem of stagnation. It means retention of a child in a particular class for more than one year. In every good system of education, every child should be able to complete instruction in each class in one year. Every child who has to repeat instruction in a class for more than one year constitutes stagnation.

CALCULATION OF THE STAGNATION INDEX. — The stagnation index of a class can be calculated by using the following formula:

$$100 \left(\frac{A}{A} + \frac{2B}{B} + \frac{3C}{C} + \frac{4D}{D} - 1 \right)$$

where *A* is the number of pupils who are reading in that class for the first year only;

B is the number of pupils who are reading in that class for the second year;

C is the number of pupils who are reading in that class for the third year;
and

D is the number of pupils who are reading in the class for four or more years.

THE EXTENT OF STAGNATION. — In the absence of examination results of Classes I to V for different states, it is difficult to indicate the extent of stagnation. But a few studies made in some states indicate that the extent of stagnation varies from 40 to 50 per cent in class I, and from 20 to 25 per cent from Class II to Class V.

CAUSES. — The causes of stagnation in Class I differ from those that pertain to Classes II-V. In class I, stagnation is mainly due to uncontrolled fresh admission, irregular atten-

dance, the age of admission and inefficient teaching. The causes of stagnation in Classes II to V pertain mainly to irregular attendance, unsatisfactory teaching, defective examination procedures, and the inability of a large number of children to procure necessary books and other material needed for study.

REMEDIAL MEASURES TO BE ADOPTED. - It would be worthwhile to adopt some measures such as the following to tackle effectively the obnoxious problem of stagnation at the primary stage.

1. Limiting all fresh admissions to Class I in the beginning of the first session of the academic year;
2. Enthusing the teacher to maintain regular attendance of the pupils that are on the roll in his class;
3. Raising the age of admission to six plus or seven especially in rural areas;
4. Improving the quality of classroom instruction;
5. Training teachers properly in assessing pupil achievement and adopting the system of internal examination (i.e., one who teaches also examines); and
6. Making free gifts of text-books and other educational equipment to poor children.

It should be realised that wastage and stagnation are not isolated independent evils. They are related to a number of evils from which our educational system suffers. For instance, the present lack of adjustment between the school and the needs of the local community, the miserable conditions of our primary schools and the poor professional equipment of our primary teachers, the absence of facilities for part-time instruction and part-time employment and inadequate economic assistance to needy students are very much responsible for wastage and stagnation in education. What is needed is a bold and realistic policy on the part of the Government of India and the state governments and setting up a competent machinery to conduct research and experiments in all vital problems and aspects of education, particularly primary education.

ADMINISTRATION OF BASIC EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.—As stated in the introductory section of this chapter, the administration of primary education in India has two major aspects: one relating to universalising primary education as envisaged in Article 45 of the Constitution and the second pertaining to improving the quality of minimum primary education to be provided to every child to enable him to be a good responsible citizen. Both the Government of India and the state governments have decided that the programme of improvement of primary education would be in the form of converting progressively ordinary primary schools into basic schools, and setting up new basic schools.

THE ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP IN THE UNION MINISTRY OF EDUCATION.—As shown earlier, one of the divisions of the Union Ministry of Education handles all matters relating to the administration of basic education in the country. The Education Secretary directly supervises the work of this Division. An assistant educational adviser handles matters pertaining to the production of literature for basic education and the programme and working of the National Institute of Basic Education.

THE STANDING COMMITTEE OF THE CABE ON BASIC EDUCATION.—The Central Advisory Board of Education has, as pointed out earlier, a standing committee on basic education. The Committee discharges at present the following functions:

1. To advise the Union Ministry of Education in formulating the policy for the development of basic education;
2. To examine the work done in this field by the Centre and the state governments and to suggest ways and means for promoting further development;
3. To examine the problem of basic education with special reference to the following matters;
 - (a) Development of correlated techniques of teaching;
 - (b) The productive aspect;
 - (c) Preparation of suitable materials and aids;
 - (d) Integration of basic education with the life of the community; and
 - (e) Any other issues connected with basic education.¹

The committee has been rendering extremely valuable assistance to the Government of India and state governments in the expansion and improvement of basic education.

THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF BASIC EDUCATION This Institute is a subordinate office of the Union Ministry of Education. It was set up in 1956 as a result of the recommendation of the Standing Committee on Basic Education of the CABE which stressed the need for setting up a research centre for basic education. The Assessment Committee on Basic Education had also emphasised the need for setting up a Central Research Institute of Basic Education "to initiate schemes of research with scholarships available for research workers."² The functions of the institute are as follows:

1. To undertake research from an all-India point of view in the field of basic education on matters like,—

¹ *The Organisation of Government of India*. Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1958. p. 259.

² *Report of the Assessment Committee on Basic Education*. Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, 1957, p. 62.

- (a) Correlation and other problems of teaching methods;
- (b) Curriculum construction;
- (c) Research in crafts;
- (d) Improvement of craft equipment and materials;
- (e) Production of literature for children and teachers including guide books for teachers;
- (f) Crafts for basic schools in urban areas;
- (g) Optimum time which may be allotted in the curriculum to various crafts;
- (h) Factors involved in reconstituting schools on basic pattern.

2. To undertake the training of basic education workers at higher level, i.e., inspectors, administrators, supervisors and to associate itself in various ways with the work of the existing basic training institutions; and

3. To function in an advisory capacity and as a clearing house of information on various issues to be referred to it by the central and state governments¹

The institute has an advisory committee with the Union Minister of Education as its chairman and some officials of the Ministry as its members to guide and supervise the work of the Institute. There is a director who is in charge of the work and programme of the institute. Due to recent reorganisation, the institute is at present a part of National Council of Education and Research, Delhi.²

THE ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP AT STATE LEVEL. — In most states, the administration of basic education is looked after in the state directorate by an officer of the rank of deputy director of education. In a few states, this responsibility is also borne by a joint or an additional director of education. At the district level, the supervision and control of basic education is done by deputy district inspectors and the assistant deputy educational inspectors.

The Assessment Committee on Basic Education, referred to earlier, has made some recommendations regarding the administrative machinery to be set up for basic education at the state level. These recommendations are:

1. There should be an overall officer for basic education of the highest possible status with training and experience in basic education;
2. He should have authority and control over the entire field of primary education;
3. The director of education should look upon this overall officer as his chosen colleague to work out a programme of educational reconstruction from below;

¹ Estimates Committee. *Elementary Education Delhi Lok Sabha Secretariat*, 1958. p. 43.

² *Supra*, p. 41.

4. The training of all personnel in the education department except the director of education should come under the purview of this overall officer;

5. Such an officer should be entrusted fully with the task of converting all primary schools in the state into basic schools within a stipulated period; and

6. In states where separate deputy directors are in charge of different branches of education, such as primary, secondary, university etc. the administration of all stages of education should be entrusted to regional directors.¹

It is a matter of regret that these recommendations of the Assessment Committee are not adopted by all states. The working relationship between the overall officer at the level of the state directorate of education and the inspecting officers at the district level are also in some states not properly worked out. It should be borne in mind that a good and efficient administrative set up for basic education is as important as the measures to be taken to improve the content of basic education.

SOME ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF BASIC EDUCATION. — There are several problems facing administrators in the field of basic education. For instance, there are problems related to the conversion of non-basic schools into basic schools, improving conditions in the existing basic schools, reducing the cost on basic schools, quantitative and qualitative improvement of post basic schools, strengthening administrative and supervisory services for basic schools, etc. For want of space, we will consider here only two problems, namely the conversion of primary schools towards basic pattern and the cost of basic schools.

Conversion of Primary Schools into Basic Schools. — Basic education has been accepted as a national pattern of education at the universal primary education stage. The Conference of State Education Ministers held in September 1956 had reaffirmed the acceptance by the Government of India and the state governments, of basic education as the pattern of primary education.

The present position in respect of basic schools is far from satisfactory. As against 2,58,006 non-basic schools during 1956-57, the total basic schools (both junior and senior) is a paltry 53,778. This would make the work of conversion of non-basic schools into extremely difficult. During the first plan period, the work of orienting primary schools towards the basic pattern was limited to a few states and it was largely an experimental measure. At the end of the first plan period, the percentage of basic schools to non-basic schools was about 20. But at the end of the Second Five Year Plan it is calculated to be only 11.6 in view of a large scale increase in non-basic primary schools. This is a situation, which administrators cannot view with equanimity.

The two big hurdles that have come in the way of a large scale and expedient conversion of non-basic schools into basic schools are the lack of resources and trained personnel.

¹ *Report of the Assessment Committee on Basic Education, op. cit., pp. 28-29.*

The Assessment Committee on Basic Education has strongly opined against using the system of compact areas in expanding basic education; it recommended on the other hand, the tackling of the entire field of non-basic primary education for the purpose of conversion to basic schools.¹ Of course, this conversion has to be properly phased. It would necessitate steps such as the following

1. Eliminating the difference between the curricula for basic and non-basic schools;
2. Reducing the difference in the cost of a basic school and a non-basic school;
3. Converting the training institutions for primary teachers to the basic pattern;
4. Orienting the present teachers, inspectors and administrators towards the basic pattern;
5. Equipping the present non-basic and basic schools properly;
6. Producing literature in basic education for the children and teachers and also for educating the public opinion in favour of basic schools; and
7. Establishing model basic schools in urban and rural areas;
8. Strengthening basic training institutions;
9. Organising extension services in the basic training centres;
10. Attracting talented persons to be the teachers of basic schools; and
11. Strengthening the administrative and inspectorate staff at the primary school level.

It was held by some educators and administrators that a great leeway in basic education could be made if a general policy decision was taken that all new primary schools to be started should be of basic pattern. But it was felt in the official circles that such a step was not advisable as "it would retard the expansion of education instead of furthering it."² The Estimates Committee of the Second Lok Sabha was, however, of the opinion that the Centre should utilise its resources earmarked for primary education predominantly for the improvement and spread of basic education and it concurred with the recommendation of the Assessment Committee on Basic Education that the financial assistance given for the improvement or expansion of primary education should be restricted only to basic education. But such a step is not likely to help the cause of universal primary education.

Cost on Basic Schools. — It has been generally held that basic schools are costlier than the non-basic schools. The higher cost is principally due to the fact that (1) a basic school requires larger space and a better school building than an ordinary primary school, (2) it is to be provided with craft equipment and craft material which involve greater expenditure, (3) the ratio of pupils per teacher has to be kept within limits in order

¹ *Ibid.* p. 35. ² *Ibid.*, p. 36.

to ensure the effectiveness of education, and (4) the teachers already trained in ordinary primary training institutions are to be retrained in basic education techniques.

There are two conflicting opinions about the relative costliness of basic education prevailing in the country. One view holds that basic schools are costlier, the other view — and it is mostly from official quarters — is that the average basic school is less costly than the average primary school in view of the income from the production of crafts. The Assessment Committee on Basic Education tried to take stock of the actual picture of productivity in basic schools but “the productivity in basic schools in such states as Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Mysore, Andhra, etc. was not such as could lead us to any worthwhile conclusions except that the work was being done very unsatisfactorily.”¹

However, in a recent publication of the Government of India it is shown that for the country as a whole, the cost per child in a junior basic school is less than that for a non-basic primary school. The claim is statistically substantiated.²

TABLE 27
Cost Per Pupil Per Annum, 1956-57

State	Junior Basic Schools	Non-basic Primary Schools
Andhra	28.8	24.9
Assam	20.0	13.2
Bihar	18.3	15.2
Bombay	30.8	30.3
Jammu and Kashmir	—	25.0
Kerala	17.3*	13.4*
Madhya Pradesh	26.7	30.3
Madras	25.9	26.4
Mysore	27.9	25.7
Orissa	36.3	16.5
Punjab	27.4	29.0
Rajasthan	57.0	31.0
Uttar Pradesh	19.5	—
West Bengal	26.1	23.6
A. & N. Islands	54.5	51.7
Delhi	56.3*	86.9*
Himachal Pradesh	29.0	50.9
L. M. & A. Islands	—	7.1
manipur	44.6	14.7
Tripura	56.8	42.5
N. E. F. A.	39.0	80.4
Pondicherry	—	50.9**
India	22.1	24.4

* Figures pertain to 1955-56. ** Includes Middle Schools also.

¹ *Ibid.* p. 44.

² *Administration of Basic Education.* National Institute of Basic Education, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, 1960, pp. 139-40.

From the above table and other statistics quoted in the publication referred to above, the following broad conclusions regarding the cost of basic schools can be drawn:

1. For the country as a whole, the average cost in a basic school is Rs. 22.1 as against Rs. 24.4 in a non-basic school;
2. On the state-wise basis, the position is not categorically either in favour of basic education being more expensive or less;
3. In the states where the cost of basic education is found to be higher than that of non-basic education, the average annual salary of the basic school teacher is more than that of the ordinary primary school teacher; and
4. In respect of teacher-pupil ratio in junior basic schools and in non basic primary schools, the difference is statistically insignificant.

The focal point in the relative costliness of basic education is the handling of craft equipment and craft material. "If these things are not purchased well, not supplied properly and in time to the schools, do not have the right specification and equality, not used, looked after and maintained (e.g. are not repaired in time) satisfactorily and adequate arrangements are not made for timely and proper disposal of the craft-products, then wastage is bound to occur."¹ These are actually the matters which should engage the serious attention of the administrators. If this is done, the financial aspect of basic education will not be a serious obstacle to the progress of basic education in the country.

PRIMARY AND BASIC EDUCATION UNDER THE NATIONAL FIVE-YEAR PLANS

In the five-year national plans on primary and basic education have received — have been accorded — great importance and even priority. The table following briefly summarises the position in respect of primary and basic education in 1950-51, i.e., prior to the First Five-Year Plan and the development targets under the three five-year plans:

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 143.

TABLE 28

Targets in Primary and Basic Education under the Five-Year Plans

	1950-1951	First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan
1. Enrolment in percentage in the age-group 6-11	42.7	51.0	60.0	80.0
2. Enrolment in percentage in the age-group 11-14	12.9	16.3	22.6	30.0
3. Additional enrolment in percentage in Basic Schools	13.1	17.2	23.3	35
4. Number of Primary Schools	2,09,671	2,35,167	2,27,135	3,23,463
5. Number of Basic Schools	34,205	47,813	98,000	88,000
6. Number of Primary Teachers in Lakhs	5.37	6.9	9.2	12.5
7. (a) Percentage of trained primary teachers	58.8	61.2	60	75
(b) Percentage of women teachers	15.2	14	17	25
8. Progress of Compulsory Education:				
(a) Urban areas	296	1,082	—	—
(b) Rural areas	20,261	38,726	—	—
9. Financial outlay in Rs. in crores for primary education	36.49	93	89	502.46

This is the broad picture of development achieved during the period of the first three five-year plans. The other aspects of the plans discussed elsewhere and embodied in the general presentation.

THE FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.—The most important aspects of the administration of primary education are financial. Little money and a large number of children to be educated have always been the stories of the finance of primary education. Compulsory primary education is very costly—therein money should not *trickle* but *pour*—as provision has to be made for the free schooling of every child within easy walking distance from his school, and in case of poor children and of children of backward tribes and aborigines educational requisites like books and slates, clothings and mid-day meals are to be supplied free of charge. In a few cases, financial help may have to be given to children in order to compensate their family, in

part at least, for the loss of their labour. Then there is expenditure on the salary of teachers, their training, construction of school buildings, provision of craft equipment and craft raw material and on direction, inspection and enforcement of primary education. It is obvious that the cost of providing compulsory primary education to 510 lakhs of children in the age-group of 6-11 and primary education on voluntary basis to 105 lakhs of children in the age-group of 11-14 is bound to be extremely heavy. It has also been decided to enrol 30 per cent of the total 348 lakhs children in the age-group 11-14 years during the third plan period. It is, therefore, imperative that the financial aspects of primary education are so handled by the government that the programme of universal primary education will not flounder on financial grounds. As stated earlier, under the *Article 45* of the Constitution the responsibility for universal primary education is vested in the Central Government, state governments and the local bodies. The success of the programme of universal primary education would depend upon the way in which the financial part of this responsibility is divided among those three partners. We will consider here how the division of the financial functions of the Central Government, state governments and the local bodies should be done.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT—The largest responsibility for the financing of primary education should be borne by the Central Government. And there are some weighty reasons for upholding this thesis:

1. The financial resources of the Central Government are most stable and affluent;

2. It has been conceded by both the First and the Second Finance Commissions that it is one of the major responsibilities of the Central Government to maintain a comparable standard of *social services* in all parts of the country. And no social service can be more vital and of greater significance in a democracy than the provision of universal, free and compulsory primary education.

3. At present there exists, in respect of the facilities for primary education, a wide gulf that separates the advanced and backward states. In case of universal primary education, the burden on the less developed states like Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh is much heavier than that on the advanced states. For instance, these six less developed states have, among them, 58 per cent of the total number of non-attending children in the country as a whole; they need 78 per cent of the new primary schools required by the country; they have to bear the cost of 78 per cent of the additional enrolment required under the Third Five-Year Plan; and they have greater problems to handle in respect of the integration of the merged erstwhile Indian states. This wide gulf can only be bridged by the provision of a more liberal and larger federal aid to them than to the advanced states.

.. Universal, primary education of the basic pattern would create an enlightened electorate and responsible citizens. This is of national importance. The country as a whole will be benefited from it. It is, therefore, in the fitness of things that the Central Government shares the cost of the benefits which it would derive.

5. One effective way of discharging its constitutional responsibility as defined in the *Articles 45, 12 and 36* would be to provide Federal aid for financing primary education.

The Committee on the Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development (1950) had recommended that 30 per cent of the total cost on compulsory primary education should be borne by the Central Government. The First Finance Commission had recommended a special grant for primary education, for the backward states, and in pursuance of this recommendation 8 states were given a grant of Rs. 9 crores. This amount was too small to make any effective impact. Even this special grant was discontinued by the Second Finance Commission, and therefore under the Second Five-Year Plan the less developed states did not receive special federal aids, and they were treated on par with the advanced states. The federal assistance for primary education under the Second Five-Year Plan was on the basis of 50 per cent of the additional expenditure on the approved schemes of primary education and 60 per cent on the approved schemes of basic education.

It would thus be seen that the principle of federal support to primary education has been accepted by the Government of India and a flat proportional grant is being given to the state governments on their programmes of improvement and expansion of primary education. The principle of flat proportional grant is very much defective. It gives more to him 'who hath and not to him who needs'. It, therefore, tends to accentuate rather than reduce the existing disparity in educational opportunities in different states. The modern educational opinion favours "equalisation" as the basic principle of federal assistance to state governments for primary education. This equitable federal grant should depend on factors such as state revenue per capita, its density of population, number of villages with small population, existence of forest area, the proportion of backward communities, the educational level attained in different states, and the amount of federal aid needed by different states to achieve the "specified equality of educational opportunity in all the states".¹ It is hoped that financial allocation to the state governments for universal primary education under the Third Five-Year Plan and subsequent plans will be based on this principle of equalisation.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF STATE GOVERNMENTS—The second important agency in financing primary education is the state government. In fact, the Central Government and the state governments bear between them about two-thirds of the total cost of primary education in India. Under the present set-up, the local bodies have been finding it extremely difficult to contribute adequately towards the cost of primary education in their areas. Their present share in the expenditure on primary education is a little more than 20 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education.

What should be the extent of responsibility of the state government in financing primary education? The Committee on Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development has suggested that every state should spend 20 per cent of the total revenue on education. Unfortunately, the committee had not specified the proportion of expenditure on primary education to be met from the state funds. Different states spend very unevenly towards primary education. The Kher Committee on "the Relationship between State Governments and Local Bodies" found that the states spending in 1950-51 on primary education varied from 65.5 per cent (Bombay State) to 12.4 per cent (Bilaspur). The figures for 1956-57 give a more depressing picture. The percentage of expenditure on primary schools to the total direct expenditure on education varied from 51.0 in Andhra to 25.2 in Uttar Pradesh. In the states of Andhra, N.E.F.A. and Tripura it ranged from 54.5 percent to 50.8 per cent; in Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore,¹ Orissa, it was between 40 and 50 per cent; it was between 30 and 40 per cent in the states of Assam, Bombay, West Bengal, Bhopal and Himachal Pradesh; and in the remaining states, it was below 30 per cent. Considering the supreme claim of universal primary education on the state revenues, the Kher Committee had recommended that "a sum not less than 60 per cent of the total educational expenditure should be spent on primary education." This is a fairly reasonable basis for the state responsibility in financing primary education.

The bulk of the state expenditure on primary education will be in respect of grants-in-aid to be paid to local bodies which will be mainly responsible for establishing and maintaining primary schools. This again raises the question: On what principle should the state grants to local bodies be based?

It may be recalled that in the case of federal aid to the state governments in financing primary education, we advocated the basic principle of equalisation. The same principle should be extended in determining the state aid to local bodies. The need for adopting such a principle stems out from the fact that the variations among local bodies in their ability to support primary education are more pronounced than even among different states.

¹ *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I. p. 68.

It may be observed here that the principle of matching grant adopted in some states has not proved effective primarily because local bodies do not have enough resources to spend an amount equal to government grants. "This difficulty will be all the more greater, when the resources of the state governments are strengthened by federal subsidies", while the sources of income of local bodies remain mostly static. The Kher Committee had recommended that the state grants to local bodies on account of primary education should be based on "a combination of the proportional grant (used to secure a broad equalisation as well as for rapid expansion), a special grant for backward or necessitous areas and specific purpose grants such as research, construction of school buildings, etc."¹ If the Kher Committee's recommendations can be implemented, it would do immense good to the cause of universal primary education in India.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF LOCAL BODIES.—In financing adequately the programme of universal primary education in the country, the local bodies, being a joint partner of the Central Government and the state governments in the huge and complex enterprise of providing universal primary education, should also bear part of the financial responsibility. This responsibility will be greater on municipalities because they have better sources of income than the district local boards. It should be made obligatory on the part of all municipalities to provide in their budgets for primary education in their areas on the basis determined by their state governments. In case of district local boards and school boards, the local cesses form an important part of their revenues. It is very much necessary that a cess on land revenue is levied in all rural areas in the country and the state governments should fix a definite portion of the total proceeds from the cess on the land revenue to be spent on primary education. The village *panchayats* should also be made to set apart a specified portion of their total revenue for primary education.

In financing primary education, an important principle to be adopted is that the allocation of financial resources should be in keeping with the executive functions delegated at different levels. Unfortunately, at present, the local bodies have the highest executive functions but very limited financial resources. "The existing distribution of financial resources should be altered in such a way that adequate funds to cover all expenditure involved in the delegated authority are given to every level of government."²

The provision of universal primary education for about nine crores of children is a colossal task. It would need strenuous efforts not only on the part of the Government of India, the state governments and local bodies, but also on the part of voluntary organisations.

¹ *The Report of the Kher Committee, op.cit.*, p. 86.

² *The Report of the Bombay Education Integration Committee (1959)*, Chapter V.

Efforts should, therefore, be made to develop the voluntary effort and its financial support should be enlisted to whatever extent it is possible.

CONCLUSION

It would be seen from the perusal of the preceding sections that the administration of universal primary education in a big country like India is a task of very great magnitude and complexity. It has two aspects, one of universalising primary education as laid down under the Constitution and thus making the nation literate, and the other of improving the quality of this minimum education to enable every child who gets the benefit of primary education to be a responsible citizen. These two sides of the administration of primary education have created a number of problems for administrators, each one being a complex task in itself. Universality of provision of primary schools, universality of enrolment and universality of retention are the three vital problems and at the same time very difficult aspects of universal, compulsory primary education. The staffing of the primary schools and basic schools with trained teachers is another complex and difficult aspect. The problem of evolving a satisfactory system of financing primary education at different levels has been eluding solution since past several years. The situation has been aggravated by the unimaginative and less sympathetic stands that are being taken by the central and state ministries of finance as regards the demands of education.

The administration of primary education, and as a matter of fact all fields of education, has been made further difficult by "the lack of a full and clear understanding between the Centre and the states regarding their respective functions and spheres of actions" and the lack of "close *field* contacts amongst the officers at the centre and in the states". A mere exchange of papers and documents and occasional conferences are not likely to help much in the expeditious and effective implementation of the programme of universal compulsory and free basic education. A time has come for the adoption of a more realistic, rational and less formal approach in the administration of primary education. The official rigid attitude should change, and the partnership of various agencies in the administration of education should be recognised and practised.

The executive authority should be decentralised as much as possible. This decentralisation of executive functions should be accompanied by the delegation of larger finances. The allocation of finances to the executive authority at each level should be sufficient to cover the expenditure required for the efficient discharge of the delegated authority. Again, there should not be a complete divorce between executive authority and financial responsibility even at the level of the local bodies.

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND.—Secondary education was, till recently, considered to be the weakest link in our educational system. For nearly a century, educationists had been aware of the inadequacy of the system, and many committees and commissions had been trying to locate its shortcomings and weaknesses. Wood's Despatch of 1854, the Report of the Hunter Commission of 1882, the Calcutta University Commission of 1917-19, the Sargent Report of 1944, and the University Education Commission Report of 1948-49 had all agreed that the fundamental defect of the secondary education system was its academic and university-dominated curriculum.

The University Education Commission of 1948-49 made it clear that no reconstruction of university education was possible without remodelling secondary education. This led to the appointment of the Secondary Education Commission, which reported in August 1953, with the aim of making secondary education a self-contained and complete stage up to the age of 17. Significant among the reforms that are being implemented on the recommendations of the Commission are:

1. Enriching the contents of secondary education by adding one more class to the high school and making it a higher secondary school of 11 years' duration and providing in selected higher secondary schools a diversified system of education in which students could offer, in addition to a common core of studies, a group of three subjects from any one of seven, namely, Humanities, Science, Technology, Commerce, Agriculture, Fine Arts and Home Science;
2. Increasing facilities for science education and class teaching;
3. The establishment of the All-India Council of Secondary Education to advise the central and state governments in matters pertaining to secondary education; and
4. The establishment of the extension services project in selected teachers' colleges to carry out a programme of in-service teacher preparation in all subjects of the secondary school curriculum.

THE PATTERN OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.—Secondary education is the central link in the chain of education. It holds the links of primary and higher education on either side, and generally covers seven years in all, including (a) the lower (secondary) or the middle or the senior basic or the junior secondary stage of 4 years for children in the age-group 11-14,

and (b) the higher stage of three years for children in the age-group 14-17.' The duration of these stages, no doubt, varies from state to state. It is also interesting to note that the lower secondary stage forms a part of primary education in some states.' A few states have abolished English from the middle school, but they have not yet clearly defined whether the lower (secondary) stage is a part of the primary or of the secondary stage. In order to remove this confusion, the Central Advisory Board of Education and the Conference of Vice-Chancellors convened in 1955, recommended a pattern of education which would comprise (a) eight years of integrated elementary (basic) education, (b) three years of higher secondary education, with diversified courses, to give a vocational bias to this stage of education and make it both a terminal point to enter life and a preparation for further studies, and (c) three years of university education leading to the first degree. Steps are being taken to reorganise the educational system of this country on these lines.

GROWTH OF SECONDARY EDUCATION—The expansion of secondary education during recent years has been phenomenal. The progress is evident from the rise in the total number of schools as well as in their total pupil enrolment. The total number of secondary schools rose from 12,693 in 1947-48 to 24,059 in 1952-53 and 53,302 in 1958-59. During this period, the pupil enrolment increased from 2,953,995 in 1947-48 to 5,906,666 in 1952-53, and 14,078,334 in 1958-59.

So far as the enrolment of pupils in the age-group 14-17 (in Classes IX-XI) is concerned, it may be noted that the number rose from 12.10 lakhs in 1950-51 to 19.79 lakhs in 1955-56, registering an increase from 5.4 to 8.1 per cent. The target for enrolment in the Second Plan was 29.99 lakhs, which amounted to 11.4 per cent of the total number in that group. Up to the end of 1958-59 (the first three years of the Plan), additional enrolment had reached 5.53 lakhs, bringing up the total to a figure of 25.32 lakhs. It is estimated that a further enrolment of 4.67 lakhs is possible by 1960-61.

CONTROL OF SCHOOLS.—Secondary schools in India are controlled today by four distinct types of agencies, viz., (1) Central Government; (2) state governments; (3) local bodies and (4) private bodies. A brief account of the role played by each of them is given below.

THE ROLE OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION.—Secondary education is a State subject, as such the Government of India is not directly responsible for this branch of education. It is, however, directly responsible for secondary education in the Union territories. Besides this, the Ministry of Education plays an important role in the reconstruction of secondary education of the entire country. It advises the states on all matters pertaining to secondary education, and gives

financial aids for its developments. Further, it adopts several measures for the improvement of secondary education and runs a few educational institutions of all-India character. A division in the Union Ministry of Education is entrusted with the responsibility of secondary education.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNION TERRITORIES. Like the state governments, the Indian Ministry of Education is directly responsible for the economic aspect of administration of secondary education in the Union territories. The organisation of secondary education, however, differs in different territories. In the Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands, there are no secondary schools. The Education Department of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and the Education Directorate of Tripura follow the Education Code, Rules and Regulations of the Secondary Board of Education, West Bengal. Manipur has no separate Educational Code. It follows the Assam Education Department Rules and orders. Similarly, the Himachal Pradesh follows the Punjab Education Department Code. The inspection, direction and control of education upto higher secondary stage is the responsibility of the directorate of this *pradesh* is under a director of education.

The budget provision for 1957-58 for secondary education in the Union Territories and the revised estimates for the same year are as under.

TABLE 29

Budget Provision for Secondary Education in Union Territories, 1957-58*
(Rupees in lakhs)

	Budget provision	Revised Estimates
Delhi	115.60	107.04
Himachal Pradesh	15.69	7.98
Tripura	14.32	19.02
Manipur	3.19	3.33
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	0.79	0.82
Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands	—	—

* Estimates Committee. *Secondary Education*. Government of India, 1958. p. 8.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—The Government of India also deals with the eighteen public schools in India. Till the end of 1952, the Lawrence schools at Sanawar and Lovedale were government institutions. From 1-1-53 the management of these schools has been vested in autonomous boards which include representatives of the Ministry of Education, Defence and Finance. The Ministry gave large grants to the public schools.

TABLE 30

Grants to Public Schools, 1953-54 to 1956-57*.
(In Rupees)

Year	Lawrence Schools at Sanawar and Lavedale	Other Public Schools
1953-54	7,03,800	72,000
1954-55	5,70,000	90,000
1955-56	3,94,000	1,23,000
1956-57	2,00,000	55,000

* Estimates Committee. *Secondary Education*. 1958. pp. 49-50.

ADVISORY FUNCTIONS.—The Indian Ministry of Education advises the states in all matters pertaining to secondary education. This is done through statutory or advisory bodies like the CAFE, the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, the National Board for Audio-Visual Education, the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation, etc.¹ It also appoints committees and commissions for suggesting improvements in secondary education. In this connection, the Secondary Education Commission, 1952-53, has wielded the greatest influence on secondary education of this country during recent years. It has redefined the objectives of secondary education and has effected consequential modification of the existing pattern.²

FINANCIAL.—The Government of India also gives financial aids to the states for implementing central plans. For example, the state governments found it difficult to carry out some of the important recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission involving heavy expenditure. The Central Government, therefore, found it necessary to assist the state governments as well as private organizations in a liberal manner. The following are some of the items, which are liberally aided by the Centre:

1. Provision of more schools for the age-group 14-17, with special attention to the improvement of girls' education;
2. Upgrading of high into higher secondary schools;
3. Conversion of high into multipurpose schools;
4. Provision of adequate teacher supply;
5. In-service programmes of teacher training through the agency of extension services departments; and
6. Other ancillary schemes such as the training of teachers in new subjects, improvement of facilities for teaching science, improvement of school libraries, etc.

¹ *Supra*, pp. 43-45.

² *Supra*, p. 195.

The amount of assistance given to the states by the Central Government under the scheme of reconstruction of secondary education is given below.

TABLE 31

Central Assistance to State Governments for the Reconstruction of Secondary Education, 1954-58 *

Sr. No.	State	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
1.	Assam	—	19,95,939	8,73,693	17,54,300
2.	Andhra	—	8,97,050	3,31,000	17,54,300
3.	Bihar	19,70,032	17,32,156	63,94,945	32,09,300
4.	Bombay	—	16,97,527	13,78,468	37,31,900
5.	Punjab	48,61,857	—	64,72,841	—
6.	West Bengal	17,23,920	60,68,088	57,87,565	84,89,000
7.	Orissa	—	5,86,420	11,74,626	19,08,800
8.	Madhya Pradesh	9,24,000	12,05,338	26,78,183	43,60,600
9.	Madras	—	19,61,995	10,43,426	18,59,400
10.	Pepsu	2,03,940	13,002	2,03,125	**
11.	Madhya Bhaarat	—	2,00,000	1,81,200	**
12.	Hyderabad	36,34,950	—	—	—
13.	Rajasthan	30,90,450	—	19,70,370	17,07,351
14.	Mysore	—	—	10,23,133	27,21,600
15.	Travancore-Cochin	—	20,61,294	—	—
16.	Saurashtra	22,66,770	26,33,400	2,22,000	**
17.	Ajmer	—	1,01,682	4,12,500	**
18.	Delhi	—	45,100	—	—
19.	Kutch	—	77,417	—	—
20.	Tripura	3,14,000	2,50,000	54,745	**
21.	Coorg	3,79,920	—	90,100	**
22.	Vindhya Pradesh	3,79,500	1,96,208	1,52,121	**
23.	Bhopal	97,680	3,34,429	1,31,750	**
24.	Kerala	—	—	19,95,514	30,88,130
25.	Uttar Pradesh	—	—	21,26,075	35,57,990
26.	Jammu and Kashmir	—	—	3,08,316	4,73,500

* Estimates Committee Secondary Education. New Dell, 1958. pp. 59-60

** Included in their respective States

FIVE YEAR PLANS. — The progress made in the setting of new schools in the first and second plan periods is given on Table 32.

TABLE 32

Progress of Secondary Education, First and Second Plans *

	First Plan			Second Plan	
	1950-51	1955-56	Targets	Actuals upto 1958-59	Estimates at the end of 1960-61
High Schools	7,241	10,400	10,620	10,703	10,826
Higher Secondary Schools..	47	77	1,227	1,484	1,500
Multi-purpose Schools	—	374	1,063	1,329	1,550
Total	7,388	10,851	12,910	13,516	13,876

* Draft Third Five Year Plan of Education, p. 59

During the third plan period, the Government of India has ear-marked a sum of Rs. 90 crores for the development of secondary education. The three main directions in which it is proposed to continue the reorganisation of secondary education are. (1) to increase the facilities for science education, (2) to improve the multi-purpose schools established during the second plan period and increase their number to a limited extent, and (3) to set up new secondary schools as higher secondary institutions and to convert existing institutions to this pattern to the extent feasible¹. It is estimated that by the end of the Third Plan, there will be about 9,000 higher secondary schools of such a type accounting for one-half of the total number of secondary schools in the country.

STEPS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION — The Government of India plays a vital role in improving secondary education directly or indirectly. For example, one of the most successful schemes implemented during the Second Plan has been the establishment of 54 extension services centres attached to selected training colleges in the country. These centres have been carrying on a very effective programme of in-service training for the teachers of secondary schools through various activities, viz, (1) week-end, short-term and long-term courses, (2) workshops, seminars and group discussions, (3) educational weeks and exhibitions, (4) advisory and guidance seminars, (5) library services, (6) auto-visual aids services and (7) publications.² Each extension centre spends annually about Rs. 26,000 out of which Rs. 20,000 are contributed by the Centre and Rs. 6,000 by the state government concerned.

The organisation of regional seminars for headmasters and educational officers is another activity of the Ministry of Education. The aim of these seminars is to provide

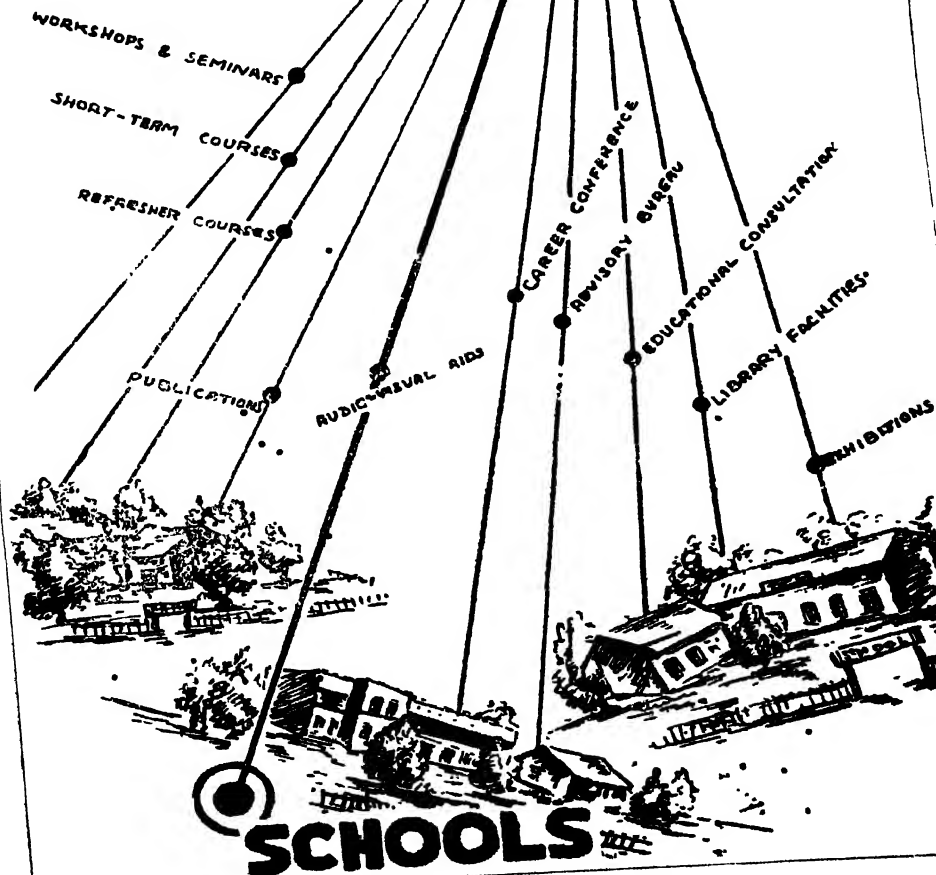
¹ Government of India *Third Five-Year Plan*. Delhi, 1960. pp. 101-102.

² *Second Seminar on Extension in Training Colleges*. Srinagar, June-July, 1956.

THE

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a venue for teachers and administrators to discuss educational matters and current problems of education with a view to improving teaching and learning. Up to the end of March, 1957, the Secondary Education Council has organised 15 such seminars. In addition to regional seminars, the Council arranges special All-India seminars for discussing specific topics or problems. Up to March, 1957, the Council had organized 11 seminars on examinations, teaching of science, educational administration, special studies, etc. The Council also conducted seven workshops on examinations.

In cooperation with state departments of education, the Directorate of Extension Programmes has set up a special unit for examination reforms. The unit has launched a long-term programme of examination reforms and the officers of the unit are currently engaged in orienting teachers to the new concept of evaluation, preparing test materials according to the new objectives, trying them out and standardising them, and preparing various types of literature for the benefit of teachers and examiners.

The Ministry also set up two important research bureaux in 1954 for tackling two major problems of secondary education, viz., the Central Bureau of Text-book Research and the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance. The former undertakes researches in various aspects of text-book writing and production with the object of improving the general standard of text-books in content and format and to make available the results of relevant research to the states and other organizations interested in production of text-books. The latter conducts researches in its own special field and provides necessary guidance to states and educational organizations engaged on guidance and counselling. The bureau has since built up a library and laboratory equipped to serve a variety of guidance functions, viz., preparation of analytic and descriptive aids to group guidance in the classroom, writing of instructional and informative notes on guidance and counselling, guidance orientation (class) talks on curricular choice and occupational preference, ancillary research to aid in the improvement of guidance practices in schools.

The Ministry has also initiated a scheme for giving grants to teacher training colleges and departments of education in the universities in order to enable them to carry out researches on educational problems chosen by them and approved by the Central Ministry. The main purpose of the scheme is to provide facilities for research which, in many instances, has been held up owing to want of funds. It is to be carried on by the staff of the training colleges assisted by a few research fellows assigned to them and some financial facilities and equipment are provided by the Ministry of Education to facilitate the completion of the projects. Further, the Ministry also conducts experiments and collects information from abroad and processes the advice or assistance thus received.

With the objective of offering young people opportunities to use their leisure profitably and to develop their personal capacities in the most satisfying manner possible, the Ministry has launched a comprehensive programme for youth welfare, which includes youth festivals, students' tours, youth hostels, holiday camps, etc. In 1954, the Ministry also initiated the National Discipline Scheme, which seeks to eradicate indiscipline by inculcating in the young a spirit of patriotism, self-reliance, tolerance and self-sacrifice combined with a balanced appreciation of human values. A provision of Rs. 58.00 lakhs was made for this purpose during the Second Plan. The scheme at present operates in 550 schools in Delhi, Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Bombay and has over 2,75,000 students under training. It is proposed to extend the scheme to another 10,000 schools in the country during the Third Plan.¹

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS. — The Government of India is also conducting a few educational institutions. These aim at preparing the personnel, which envisaged reforms in secondary education of this country may need. These are: (1) National Council of Education and Research, Delhi; (2) Central Institute of English, Hyderabad; (3) Lakshmi-bai College of Physical Education, Gwalior. During the third plan period, the Government of India is further contemplating to start four regional training colleges for preparing teachers needed for multi-purpose schools, and a central institute of science for orienting the existing science teachers in the concept of general science.

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION. — Secondary education is under direct and full control of the state. This control is exercised through different kinds or levels of authorities — the state ministry of education, the department of education and the board of secondary education

THE STATE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION. — The state ministry of education is responsible for initiating and controlling the educational policy. For example, it defines the duration of the secondary stage, gives general directions regarding curriculum, sanctions the secondary education code, fixes the budget and so on. Such measures are, at times, discussed in the state legislature and need its approval. Since independence, the state ministries are being faced with several important educational problems, e.g., upgrading the high school into the higher secondary level, the position of English and Hindi in school curriculum, uniformity and nationalisation of text-books, class-records, and so on. These are important but very controversial problems. Every state adopts its own policy regarding them

¹ Ministry of Education *Draft of Third Five-Year Plan of Education*, op. cit., pp. 137-38.

and as such there is a lack of uniformity of policy in spite of the direction given by the Government of India.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. — What the state ministry of education initiates, the department of education has to execute. It sees that the rules and regulations as laid down in the grant-in-aid code are carried out, that the prescribed courses and curricula are adopted, that the approved text-books are followed, and so on. It is responsible for the proper conduct of government institutions and aided schools. All schools — government or aided — are inspected by state inspectors and inspectresses. The department further awards grants to private schools, and settles disputes between teachers and managements.

Practically, every state has a deputy director of education in charge of secondary education to help the director of education. It is, however, seen that the department of education is responsible for academic secondary schools only, technical and agricultural schools are in charge of other departments. This arrangement, however, varies from state to state. It is suggested that while the department of education may be entrusted with the general administration, other departments may confine their attention to technical advice only.

INSPECTION. All recognised schools are subject to school inspection, and every state has its own system of inspection.¹ So far as secondary education is concerned, an inspector has generally following powers:

1. To inspect all government secondary schools and primary training institutions;
2. To recognize non-government secondary schools and to sanction grants;
3. To withhold or withdraw aid to private schools, and to cancel their recognition;
4. To make such recommendations as will assist the D.E. in sanctioning building grants to recognised institutions under his jurisdiction;
5. To exercise the disciplinary, controlling and administrative powers delegated to him in such a way as to maintain the efficiency of institutions under his control;
6. To make such recommendations as will assist the Director in dealing with applications from the heads of institutions for changes in the curricula;
7. To submit annual reports to the director with statistical returns; and
8. To submit such other returns as are required by the director.²

The main defects of inspection have already been discussed.³ Among other reasons why inspection today is not satisfactory, these are worth noting:

¹ *Supra.* pp. 94-97.

² *The Education Manual of the State of Bombay.* 1954. pp. 128-29.

³ *Supra.* pp. 97-100.

1. The role of the inspector is wrongly conceived in that he is regarded primarily as a person, whose function is to judge rather than to advise and guide;
2. Most inspectors have no specific training for their job, and some do not even have any professional training or experience; and
3. Almost all inspectors today have to devote a considerable portion of their time to administrative duties.¹

Steps for improving school inspection have already been suggested.²

GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS. — During 1956-57, there were 36,291 secondary schools in the country — 31,918 for boys and 4,373 for girls. Their distribution according to management is given below:

TABLE 33

Secondary Schools by Management, 1956-57*

Management	Number	Percentage
Government	6,967	19.2
District Boards	11,128	30.7
Municipal Boards	1,241	3.4
Private Bodies:		
Aided	12,876	35.5
Unaided	4,079	11.2

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I, p. 103.

Thus the government is directly responsible for about one-fifth of the schools. It bears their entire expenditure, and their teachers are state servants. Government schools are found to be more costly than average private institutions, and a large portion of the secondary education budget is spent on state institutions. In this connection, one would like to remind our administrators of the following wise advice which the Hunter Commission gave about 80 years ago:

Secondary education should, as far as possible, be provided on the grant-in-aid basis and government should withdraw, as far as possible, from the direct management of secondary schools.

The Commission further held that the government should, however, run: (1) Vocational and girls' schools, and (2) schools in 'backward areas, where the people themselves

¹ *Report of a Study by an International Team*. p. 106.

² *Supra*. pp. 98-100.

may not be "advanced or wealthy enough to establish such schools for themselves with a grant-in-aid."

Regarding administration of government schools, it may be pointed out that although the head of a government institution prepares the routine budget, he cannot initiate and implement any new measure in his school unless it comes from above. As regards the appointment of staff in a government school, it is unfortunate that the head of the school has no voice in the selection or the choice of his staff. In fact, the principle of democracy, decentralisation and cooperative participation should permeate the lowest unit of the educational administration, namely, the schools. It is, therefore, suggested that the district educational officer in each district should be guided in all matters pertaining to government schools by an advisory body consisting of the heads of government schools in the district, senior teachers on the staff of the schools among whom there should be a few women teachers, if possible. It is further suggested that each government school should have a small advisory body consisting of a few members from the public so that the school can establish contact with the society.

ADVISORY BOARDS. — A few states have standing advisory boards for advising the local government pertaining to secondary education, particularly its improvement—both in quality and quantity. Such a body will prove to be superfluous, if a statutory board of secondary education is set up for each state.¹

BOARDS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. — Based on the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission's Report, as many as fifteen boards of intermediate and/or high school teaching examinations have been established. These are statutory bodies, set up by State legislatures. Their names along with the examinations, conducted by them, are given below:

1. Bihar School Examination Board, Patna (f. 1952) Secondary School, Higher Sec. School Dip. and Cert. in Physical Education, Dip. in Social Education.

2. Board for Public Examination, Trivandrum (f. 1949) — Secondary School Leaving Cert. Kerala Govt. Tech. Exam., Teachers' Tr. Cert., Post-basic Scholarship Cert., Post-graduate Dips. in Basic Ed., Needle-work & Garment Making, Music, Dance, Arabic Munshi, Sanskrit, Nursery Exams., Diplomas in Engg., Tech. and Text. Tech., Dip. and Cert. in Physical Ed., Cert. of Painting of Ravi Varma School of Painting.

3. Board of Higher Secondary Education, Delhi (f. 1926) — High School, Higher Secondary, Higher Secondary Technical, Higher Secondary Multipurpose Part I, Ratna and Bhushan, Prabhakar, Pravodh, Pravin & Pragya.

¹ *Infra.* p. 209.

4. Board of High School and Intermediate Education, Uttar Pradesh, Allahabad (f. 1922) — High School, Intermediate, High School Technical and Intermediate Technical.

5. Board of Secondary Education, Andhra Pradesh, Hyderabad (f. 1957) — conducted Secondary School Leaving Cert. and Higher Secondary Cert. and Multi-purpose & Higher Secondary School Leaving Cert.

6. Board of Secondary Education, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal (f. 1959) — High School Cert., Higher Secondary School Cert., Higher Secondary School Cert. (Tech.), Prep./Pre-Univ., Secondary School Cert., Agri. course, Intermediate.

7. Board of Secondary Education, Madras (f. 1911) — Secondary School Leaving Cert.

8. Board of Secondary Education, Orissa, Cuttack (f. 1956) — High School Cert. and Higher Sec. School Cert.

9. Board of Secondary Education, Rajasthan, Jaipur (f. 1957) — High School, and Higher Secondary.

10. Board of Secondary Education, West Bengal, Calcutta (f. 1951) — Secondary School Final and Higher Secondary School Final.

11. Central Board of Secondary Education, Ajmer (f. 1929) — High School Cert. and Intermediate

12. Gujarat Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, Baroda (f. 1960) — Secondary School Cert.

13. Secondary Education Board, Mysore State, Bangalore (f. 1913) — Secondary School Leaving Cert. and Multi-purpose Higher Secondary Cert.

14. Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, Maharashtra State, Poona (f. 1960) — Maharashtra Secondary School Cert.

15. Vidarbha Board of Secondary Education, Nagpur (f. 1922 &c. 1956) — Secondary School Cert., Higher Secondary School Cert. (Tech.), Vocational High Schools. Cert.¹

A glance at the names of boards as listed above will show that except Assam, Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir, every state has its own board for conducting the school leaving examination. In these states, the university is still responsible for holding this examination. It is, however, hoped that they will also follow the policy of other states. There is already a move in Assam for the establishment of such a body.

Criticisms are generally levelled against the constitution and functions of these boards. As the Secondary Education Commission remarked, "The boards...are unwieldy in

¹ Ministry of Education. *Directory of Institutions for Higher Education*. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1961. pp. 133-34.

number and some of the interests represented on it are not likely to promote efficiency or harmony".¹ The Commission further suggested, "If secondary education is to progress on right lines, the Board must be a compact body mainly composed of experts,"² experienced in teaching as well as acquainted with conditions of work in secondary schools. The board should further command respect of different professions and vocations.* It should not be a mere government body. As such it is desirable that non-official element has sufficient representation on it.

The functions of these statutory boards vary. The majority of them confine their attention to the holding and conducting of the S.S.C. Examination and prescribing courses of studies for such an examination. Thus they are concerned with the S.S.C. class only, and not with the lower classes which are controlled by the department of education. Hence there is a lack of continuity and consistency of policy.

Some boards are further authorised to advise the department of education. For example, a notification of Madras Government directs that "The Board shall advise the Director of Public Instruction on all matters referred to it on matters relating to Secondary Education. The Board shall also be consulted on the syllabi and courses of study in Secondary Schools." Thus the board can advise but not take a lead in matters pertaining to secondary education.

A few boards like the Vidarbha Board of Secondary Education have powers which affect the administrative function³ of the education department such as the prescription of courses for secondary schools, the recognition of such schools for the purpose of sending their pupils to the examinations conducted by the board, the adoption of measures to promote physical, moral and social welfare of students in recognised institutions and the prescription of conditions of the residence and discipline of students, etc. The board has the power to recognise an institution for the purpose of admission to its examination, even though the institution may not be recognised by the department of education. Such a system not only results in open conflict between the board and the department of education, but at times makes the position of the board awkward. Long ago, an official report gave the following sane advice:

It is also of doubtful wisdom to entrust boards with the important function of according recognition to schools without giving them at least a say in the distribution of grant-in-aid. The present system is apt to breed financial irresponsibility in boards.⁴

¹ *Secondary Education Commission's Report*, p. 191.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ Government of India. *Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India. 1927-32. Vol. I. p. 109.*

Similarly, the functions of the Board of Secondary Education, Bihar, are to inspect high and higher secondary schools either through government inspectors or inspectors appointed by itself, to grant recognition to high and higher secondary schools or to withdraw such recognition, to distribute annual grants to schools under rules approved by the government, and to hear and decide appeals of teachers. Thus this board has very wide powers. But it appears that the Board of Secondary Education, West Bengal, is the most powerful body in the field of secondary education in the country. It has the necessary administrative, financial and punitive powers for regulating, controlling and developing secondary education of West Bengal.

During recent years, there is a good deal of controversy regarding the functions of these statutory boards. There is, however, a general agreement that their jurisdiction should not be confined to the conducting of the S.S.C. examination only, and that they should have wider powers. One should note that efficiency in administration depends on singleness of purpose. It is, therefore, desirable that besides conducting school leaving examinations, every secondary education board should be entrusted with full power of prescribing text-books and laying down the courses of instruction, and of defining an examination policy for the entire secondary stage. But it is not expected to function as an executive body which is the province of the department of education. The department should inspect and recognise schools, award grants to aided schools, and see that the policy laid down by the S.S.C. Board is properly implemented.

The need for revising the functions and constitution of the existing secondary education or examination boards is thus very urgent. As the success of administration depends much on unity and singleness of purpose, it will be necessary that every state has a statutory secondary education board having academic control over entire secondary education of the state. It should also replace the advisory board of secondary education in those states, where there are such bodies.

It may be noted that the State of Maharashtra have more than one independent high school education board. If the above principle is accepted, it will be necessary to abolish such independent bodies and to constitute one single board in this state too. Such a step may arouse resentment in those areas, where there may be a likelihood of abolishing an existing statutory board. For example, the Integration Committee for Secondary Education, appointed by the Bombay State Government, 1958-59, remarked, "We have also given due consideration to the intensity of feeling in Vidarbha and the representations made in that region about the retention of the Vidarbha Board."¹ After examining pros and cons of the problem, the Committee opined:

¹ Bombay Government. *Report of the Integration Committee for Secondary Education, 1958-59.* p. 269.

We feel that a statutory board at the state level constitutes an organic part of an integrated and well-knit system of secondary education for the whole state and that two or more independent statutory boards, with no organic inter-relationship, are not likely to lead to that educational integration and homogeneity which will be in the best interest of the state.¹

The committee ultimately held that there should be a statutory State Board for Secondary Education for the entire state which should be the supreme policy-making body in the field of secondary education. It was suggested that the board should have the following functions:

1. Laying down common policies for secondary education;
2. The maintenance of common educational standards;
3. The formulation of principles of syllabi and curricula for the entire secondary course;
4. The prescription of standard requirements for secondary schools;
5. Determination of general principles underlying the preparation and prescription of text-books and prescribing or publishing language text-books for the examinations conducted by the board,
6. The appointment of boards of paper-setters and translators, where necessary, laying down directives for the maintenance of common standards for the final examinations to be held at the end of the secondary course for the whole state, taking care to see that each region is adequately represented on every board;
7. The framing of the necessary regulations for the organisation and conduct of final examinations and the admission of students to such examinations;
8. To maintain a statistical and research bureau; and
9. To advise government on questions concerning secondary education referred to it by government or on its own initiative.

The committee, however, also appreciated the need for setting up divisional boards, as every region may have its own peculiar problems. It was suggested that the state board may delegate, such of its functions, wholly or partly, to the divisional boards as it may consider fit. It will be a policy-making body and will be responsible for the maintenance of educational standards and also of common standards for the final examinations. The details regarding the work of the actual conduct of the examination, the assessment of scripts and similar matters will be the responsibility of divisional boards.

These suggestions deserve thoughtful consideration in those states, where more than fifty thousand candidates may be appearing at the S.S.C. examination every year, divisional boards may be set up in distinct areas, so that every unit is responsible for a convenient

¹ *Loc. cit.*

² *Ibid* p. 271.

number of examinees. But they should be ultimately responsible to the central State Board of Secondary Education.

LOCAL BODIES

INTRODUCTION. — In consequence of the recommendations of the Hunter Commission of 1882 regarding the transfer of secondary schools to local bodies, the district local boards and municipalities came on the scene as agencies for conducting secondary schools after about 1883-84. Even some of the secondary schools formerly conducted by the department of education were transferred to local bodies. During 1956-57, out of 36,291 secondary schools in the country as many as 11,128 (30·7 per cent) and 1,241 (3·4 per cent) were managed by district boards and municipal boards respectively.¹

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS. — The state-wide distribution of the schools managed by local bodies is given below:

TABLE 34

Percentage of Secondary Schools Managed by Local Bodies, 1956-57*

State	Middle Schools		High Schools		Secondary Schools	
	District Board	Municipal Board	District Board	Municipal Board	District Board	Municipal Board
Andhra ..	19·7	5·5	59·1	6·7	46·9	6·3
Assam ..	35·3	0·4	—	—	27·2	0·3
Bihar ..	31·9	2·2	—	—	58·8	7·6
Bombay ..	77·8	9·0	0·2	3·2	—	—
Jammu & Kashmir	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kerala ..	5·7	0·7	2·7	0·5	4·6	0·7
Madhya Pradesh ..	28·9	2·0	1·0	3·9	23·3	3·4
Madras ..	22·6	5·2	37·2	6·4	32·2	6·0
Mysore ..	44·1	1·3	14·0	15·3	37·0	4·6
Rajasthan ..	1·2	0·1	—	—	0·9	0·1
Orissa ..	7·2	0·4	6·1	0·8	6·9	0·5
Punjab ..	55·7	3·2	23·7	3·5	38·9	3·3
Uttar Pradesh ..	59·6	4·6	0·2	2·6	42·5	4·1
West Bengal ..	0·9	0·4	—	—	0·5	0·2

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I, p. 108.

¹ *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I, p. 103.

glance at Table 34 shows that so far as the middle schools are concerned, the local bodies play a dominant role. Perhaps a fair proportion of these schools are upper primary schools. It may be further noted that except in three or four states, very few high schools are managed by local bodies.

OPINIONS REGARDING SCHOOLS MANAGED BY LOCAL BODIES — It may be pointed out that the administration and management of schools conducted by local bodies leave, as a rule, much to be desired and experience in the matter has not been particularly encouraging. The Secondary Education Commission remarked, "Though we do not wish to make any unfair generalization about their efficiency, we have had enough evidence to show that there is considerable need for toning-up of these institutions"¹ And the Report of the International Team also observed, "That schools under the control of local bodies are not on the whole efficient is universally recognized"² The main defects of the management are (1) It changes every three or four years, thus depriving the school of a stable management, (2) the tendency of utilising one's position as a member of the municipality or local board also prevails, and (3) there is too much interference in internal management of the schools concerned.³

SUGGESTED IMPROVEMENTS — If the local bodies have failed to discharge their educational responsibilities, the fault lies not with the principle of local autonomy but with the machinery designed to execute that principle. There is thus the urgent need for the improvement of the machinery. In the first place, the success of a school depends much on local co-operation. Thus while there may be a general board of education for the entire local body, every individual school should have its own executive committee representing the local community. Unless this practice is adopted, local support cannot be enlisted. It should also be realised that the development of education at the pre-university stage in the majority of foreign countries like Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States is largely due to local autonomy which is not merely accepted as a measure of expediency but is looked upon as a part of democratic faith.

In the second place, the general board of education should be very compact in nature and should not exceed fifteen members with either the district education officer or some nominee of the directorate as an *ex-officio* member of the board. Similarly, the executive committee of an individual school should work on the lines of the executive committee of any other private school. Its headmaster should be its *ex-officio* member, teachers should

¹ *Secondary Education Commission's Report* p. 196

² *Report of a Study by an International Team* p. 101

³ *Bombay Government Report of a Study by the Integration Committee for Secondary Education* Bombay Government Central Press, 1959 p. 219

have also some representation on the committee, and no member should have the right to inspect the school or to call for any statement or documents or in any other way to interfere with its internal management.

PRIVATE BODIES

INTRODUCTION.—Private enterprise has played a very important role in the development of secondary education in the country. The Christian missionaries were the pioneers in the field, and they began their activities in the first half of the nineteenth century. The Wood's Despatch of 1854 stressed the desirability of encouraging private enterprise in the field of secondary education through a suitable system of grant-in-aid. But Indian private enterprise was encouraged to enter the field due to the recommendations of the Hunter Commission, which had suggested that the part played by government in directly conducting secondary schools should be restricted to the minimum and that private effort should be encouraged adequately in the spread of secondary education by the provision of liberal grant-in-aid. Private effort received a fillip under the policy and a large number of private schools were started in the country.

TYPES OF MANAGEMENT.—Approximately fifty per cent of secondary schools of India are private institutions. These are managed by: (1) Religious organisations and other denominational bodies; (2) Registered Trust Boards; (3) Societies; and (4) Individuals.

Religious Organisations.—The Christian missionaries were the pioneers in the field of secondary education. Then came other religious orders like the D.A.V. Society, Brahmo Samaj, Muslim organisations and so on. Many of them have maintained a high level of efficiency. But some of them suffer from various defects: recruitment of staff is influenced by religious or sectarian considerations, and some of the communal schools are run on lines which have tended to promote narrow and unhealthy trends. Commenting on some of these schools, the Secondary Education Commission has remarked, "The manner in which the teachers are selected and in some cases the spirit in which the school is administered are not calculated to promote a broad and healthy national outlook."¹

Registered Trust Schools.—Certain registered trust boards maintain schools, which are run exclusively for certain purposes or for certain sections of the population, as laid down in their terms of trust. In fact, every educational institution should be open to children of every religion or community. But the managements of these schools are prevented from doing so by the terms of the trust. The Secondary Education Commission suggests that "Legislation should be passed in such case to permit the admission of all children to

such schools but till that is done, they should be eligible to receive grant-in-aid like other schools.”¹

Societies.—A large number of private schools are at present managed by educational societies. A few of these organisations are organised on the life-member system. The teachers of such a society themselves form the management and have a controlling voice in the affairs of the society because they work for the school on small salaries and devote their whole life to the development of the school. Experience, however, shows that in course of time, the number of life-members becomes smaller and smaller and they become the managing bodies employing other teachers as employees.

The majority of societies are, however, formed by a group of citizens in a locality with a view to conducting a school or a number of educational institutions. They employ teachers as employees, and undertake the burden of financing the schools. In short, the control of the management is in their hands. The teachers of such societies are treated as employees and practically they have no voice in the affairs of the school.

Individual Management.—There is also a fairly large number of schools which are run as ‘proprietary schools’ by individuals. Majority of these are to a certain extent profit-making concerns and have very little educational ideology before them and yet it should be admitted that some of these are really efficient institutions which have greatly contributed to the progress and development of secondary education in the country.

SOME SUGGESTIONS.—It is indeed true that private enterprise has played a significant role in the expansion of secondary education in the country, but the majority of private schools are not up to the mark. They are ill-equipped, ill-housed, and are run more like commercial enterprises than as educational institutions. It should, however, be admitted that one cannot do away with private enterprise, since it has got an important part to play in any scheme of education. There is need for better control over the opening of schools, conditions for recognition of schools should be stricter, and every institution should have a properly qualified managing committee.

Control over the Opening of Schools.—There has been a considerable increase in the number of secondary schools during recent years. The majority of them have been opened in mofussil towns and big villages, and thus secondary education has been brought within easy reach of the people. But several difficulties have arisen in the path of such an expansion of schools. Numerous inefficient schools have been started in the most haphazard manner. There are many ill-attended and uneconomic schools in close proximity to large

¹ *Loc. cit.*

schools. A number of schools have also come to exist so close to one another that cut-throat competition and mean tactics seem to be raging among them with a consequent decrease in efficiency. Many efficient middle schools have also been enlarged into inefficient high schools. Most of the private schools are impoverished, ill-equipped and under-staffed. The majority of teachers are ill-paid and ill-treated. Most of the schools do not pay enough attention to important ingredients of learning, viz., discipline, social life, proper sanitary conditions and a reasonable standard of class-work.

From what has been stated above, it will be obvious that schools should be allowed to be opened in such areas only, where there is an urgent need for them. Care should be further taken that recognition is given only on clearly defined conditions, which will ensure their proper running and the maintenance of the right atmosphere in them. The Secondary Education Commission further suggests that the states should take over such schools as fail to conform to conditions prescribed. If this is not possible, it should not hesitate to close down such schools and make alternative arrangements for the education of the pupils of those institutions.¹

Recognition of Schools.—Every state has definite rules for recognition of schools. Departmental recognition entitles a school: (1) to present pupils at public examinations; (2) to present pupils as candidates for scholarship examinations, and to admit scholarship holders; and (3) to apply for grant-in-aid from public funds.

The rules for recognition, no doubt, vary from state to state, but they all agree on fundamental principles. An application for recognition generally requires details regarding the following particulars:

- 1. Whether there is a real need for the institution in the locality;
2. The name of the manager or secretary or correspondent, as the case may be;
3. The constitution of the founding agency;
4. The qualifications and rates of pay and terms of service of the teaching staff;
5. The examination or examinations for which it desires recognition;
6. The subject or subjects of instruction in which the institution undertakes to make provision;
7. The medium or media through which it proposes to impart instruction;
8. The classes for which it undertakes to make provision, and the years in which it proposes to establish or has established the proposed classes;
9. The accommodation provided in class-rooms and in hostels;

¹ *Secondary Education Commission's Report*, p. 198.

10. The provision made for health, recreation and discipline of pupils;
11. The financial position of the institution and the sources and amount of annual income;
12. The rate of fees charged and the provision, if any, for the grant of educational concessions to poor pupils;
13. The number of pupils in each class or section of a class; and
14. A copy of the certificate of registration of the society, if the school is run by a society.¹

The state department of education should see that the above conditions are fulfilled properly. It may further be noted that individual or proprietary managements should be definitely discouraged, and that all the managing bodies should be registered. For example, as regards non-government schools in the territory of the old Bombay State, the orders passed by the state government provide for the registration of the bodies controlling schools under the Bombay Public Trust Act of 1950 and/or the Societies Registration Act of 1860, to be eligible to receive aid from the State, proprietary schools being debarred from such aid. The 1860 Act is intended to regulate the registration of societies established for the promotion of literature, science, or the fine arts or for the diffusion of useful knowledge or for charitable purposes.

Under the Bombay Public Trust Act, 1950, which is intended to regulate and make better provision for the administration of the public, religious and charitable trusts, "a charitable purpose" includes among other things, "education", and the trustees of a Public Trust, under the Act, are required to make an application for the registration of the Public Trust stating inter alia the designation of the trust, the names and addresses of the trustees and the managers, a list of movable and immoveable properties, their approximate value, the gross average annual income of the trust property and the amount of the average annual expenditure and similar matters. They are also under obligation to submit their annual audited accounts and major changes in the properties of the trusts to the Charity Commissioner. All secondary schools registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860, automatically are subjected to the provision of the Bombay Public Trust Act of 1950.

Managing Committee.—One of the main grievances of secondary education is the rising discontent in the teaching profession. The managing committee rules, and the teachers are treated as mere paid employees and practically they have no voice in managing the affairs

of the school. Efficiency in administration in today's world depends largely on democratisation, decentralisation and co-operative spirit. As a recent official report remarks:

In the present pattern of our society, the concentration of powers in the hands of one man or a coterie of persons is not calculated to ensure the smooth and efficient working of an educational institution and that workers in the field and representatives of the rank and file must also be associated adequately with the actual conduct and management of educational institutions.¹

It is, therefore, suggested that every non-government school should have a managing committee, which ought to be responsible to the government for the proper management of the school. The composition of the managing committee should be as follows:

1. The managing committee should not be unwieldy in size. It may have a minimum of nine and a maximum of fifteen members.
2. The headmaster should be the *ex-officio* secretary or joint or assistant secretary of the committee. This is necessary for maintaining singleness of purpose and for avoiding conflicting forces.
3. Representatives of permanent teachers (not exceeding one-third of the total number of members on the committee).
4. Representative of the parent body, whichever it may be, a society, a trust, a local authority, a mission, etc. This may include one nominee of donors and a representative of alumni.
5. One nominee of the D.E.
6. One representative of guardians.

Besides the above body, every secondary school should have a teachers' council. It should advise the headmaster on the day-to-day academic matters of the school.

FINANCE

INTRODUCTION.—Since independence, the total direct expenditure on secondary education for the entire country has increased considerably—from nearly fourteen crores of rupees in 1947 to thirty-seven crores in 1952, and eighty-two crores in 1958-59. The amount of money ear-marked for secondary education in our five-year plans also shows a rise—Rs. 22 crores (First Plan), Rs. 51 crores (Second Plan) and Rs. 90 crores (Third Plan).

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.—The Central Government awards grants to state governments for qualitative improvement in secondary education.² Central grants are calculated on the basis of the ratio notified to the states in respect of various specified schemes, viz. conversion

¹ *Report of a Study by the Integration Committee for Secondary Education*. Bombay, 1959. p. 224.

² *Supra*. pp. 198-99.

of schools into multi-purpose and higher secondary schools, science teaching, educational and vocational guidance, etc. A state provision to earn central assistance has to be included in the approved programmes of the state government for the year to which the grant relates. Progress reports are called for every year and are examined with a view to finding out and assessing the targets achieved.

Under Scheme No. 4(d) grants are also given to private institutions which are doing important cultural, educational and experimental work, since it is felt that some of these institutions may not be able to develop their own programmes for want of adequate financial assistance. The Estimates Committee, however, suggests that, "The Ministry should see that the pace of progress in the field of reconstruction of secondary education is uniformly assured in all the states, especially in those areas which were lagging behind."¹

STATE GOVERNMENTS. At present, the sources of revenue for educational purposes at the state level are (1) state government grants; (2) grants made by municipal and other local bodies directly or through an educational cess; (3) private benefactions and grants made by private managements; and (4) school fees. There is provision for levying an educational cess. It can be imposed by local bodies under permissive power given to them by state governments. It is levied on land revenue, or as part of the profession tax. They can levy the maximum educational cess permissible under the Act. In many cases, this has not been done.

The extent to which the secondary school expenditure was borne by different sources is shown in the following Table:

TABLE 35

Direct Expenditure on Secondary Schools by Sources, 1956-57*

Source	Amount	Percentage
Government Funds ..	28,85,58,659	49.1
District Board Funds ..	2,49,48,809	4.3
Municipal Board Funds ..	1,18,24,091	2.0
Fees ..	20,05,91,368	35.5
Endowments ..	1,82,17,292	3.1
Other Sources ..	3,52,02,431	6.0
Total	58,73,42,650	100.0

* *Education in India*, 1956-57, Vol. I, p. 1.

Thus the figures of expenditure for 1956-57 show that the government bears approximately half of the expenditure on secondary education. But it varies according to states. It was the highest in Jammu & Kashmir (89.7) and lowest in West-Bengal (26.9). Fees accounted for more than half of the total direct expenditure on secondary schools in West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh. The contributions from endowments and other sources varied between 4.6 per cent. in Kerala and 15.8 per cent in Orissa.

Educational institutions under private management are given grant-in-aid to assist them in the expansion and improvement of their educational facilities, but the amount varies from state to state. The grants given may be for any of the following purposes:

1. Payment of stipends to teachers under training;
2. Payment of medical officers for medical inspection;
3. Maintenance of boarding homes for orphans;
4. Construction and extension of school buildings and hostels;
5. Furniture, apparatus, chemicals, and books for library;
6. Acquisition of lands for school buildings, hostels or playgrounds;
7. Crafts or industrial education; and
8. Maintenance grant.

GRANT-IN-AID.—The basis adopted by various states for the payment of maintenance and other grants to non-government secondary schools, however, varies. A brief review of grant-in-aid rules followed in some of the larger states is given below.

Madras.—The rules provide that in the case of aided secondary schools in which at least the revised scales of pay fixed for teachers in secondary schools under local bodies have been introduced, the amount of grant payable in any one year will normally be based on two-thirds of the approved net cost for the preceding financial year, i.e., two-thirds of the excess of the approved recurring expenditure over the income from tuition-fees reckoned at standard rates. In the case of other schools in which the revised scales have not been introduced, the grant will continue to be based on one-half of the approved net cost for the preceding financial year.

Andhra Pradesh.—The system of grant-in-aid in the Andhra Pradesh is broadly similar to that in Madras, except that the expenditure on the payment of dearness allowance is excluded from the calculation of the maintenance grant and a separate grant on the basis of one-half of the approved expenditure on dearness allowance, or the actual deficit whichever is less, is awarded.

Uttar Pradesh.—The maintenance grant for an English school or an intermediate college includes a fixed grant for each section (Intermediate Section, Classes XI & XII, High School

Section, Classes IX & X, Upper Middle Section—VII & VIII, and Lower Middle Section—Classes V & VI), an attendance grant, a staff grant and a special grant. One of the rules requires that the annual grant shall not exceed the difference between the annual cost of maintenance and the income of the school (or the Intermediate College) from fees and private sources or half the annual cost of maintenance whichever is less. The maintenance grant is limited to the ceiling of the net expenditure.

Punjab. — Maintenance grants are of the following kinds, any or all of which may be earned in the same school: (a) block grants for attendance, instruction, etc. (b) staff grants; (c) provident fund grants; (d) boarding house grants; and (e) special grants.

Block grants are based on attendance. For middle departments of secondary schools, block grants are admissible at Rs. 8 per pupil in a vernacular school and at Rs. 16 per pupil in average attendance in an anglo-vernacular school. In high school departments, block grants are admissible at Rs. 24 per pupil in average attendance. These rates are doubled for girls' schools.

Staff grants are payable at the rate of one-third of the salary paid and shall be admissible on account of teachers holding certificates awarded by the Department, subject to certain conditions.

The total grant awarded to a school under the head of block and staff grants, including all aid from public revenues towards expenditure on tuition, shall not exceed three-fourths of the excess of approved expenditure on tuition over the income from tuition fees calculated on the basis of the actual rates charged, subject to the maximum of the rates levied in the corresponding classes of government schools.

Gujarat and Maharashtra. — All recognised schools (excluding vocational schools) are eligible for maintenance grants on their total admitted expenditure at the following percentages:

1. Secondary schools in rural, i.e., non-municipal areas... 50 per cent;
2. Schools in other areas (including cantonments) 45 per cent.

TEACHERS

PRESENT POSITION. — With the expansion of secondary education, the number of secondary teachers also shows a considerable increase from 2.12 lakhs in 1951-52 to 3.7 lakhs in 1956-57. Out of the total number of teachers in 1956-57, nearly 3.0 lakhs (81.6 per cent) were men and 0.7 lakh (18.4 per cent) women. Trained teachers formed 60.0 per cent of the total in these schools (57.6 per cent of the total in these schools (57.6 per cent in case of men and 70.6 per cent in case of Women).¹

¹ Ministry of Education. *Education in India. A Graphic Presentation.* Delhi, 1959. p. 36.

TEACHER SUPPLY. — Since the publication of the Secondary Education Commission's Report, considerable attention is being paid to the reorganization of secondary education in this country. Its success will, however, depend on an adequate supply of teachers. The reorganisation has also brought forth new curricula, new subjects and new approaches, which demand teachers of different kind. The supply of teachers is thus not merely a question of any teacher but competent teachers. The total teacher requirement for secondary schools in the Third Plan, as envisaged by the Indian Ministry of Education, comes to 1,16,230. These teachers will fall under four categories:

1. Teachers required for upgrading 5,000 higher secondary schools with humanities and science—17,500;
2. Teachers required for additional enrolment of 15 lakh pupils in the age-group 14-17—80,000;
3. Teachers required for the additional provision of Science—16,000; and
4. Teachers required for strengthening existing multi-purpose schools and establishing new ones—2,730.¹

TRAINING OF TEACHERS. — There are at present 239 post-graduate training institutions in the country and the annual output from these institutions is estimated to be 21,060. These teachers are trained for:

1. M.Ed. (Papers or Thesis),
2. B.T. or B.Ed. or Diploma in Education.
3. B.T. (Short Term),
4. B.T. Degree (Basic),
5. Diploma in Education (D.Ed.) of Graduates' Basic Training Centres.

It may, however, be noted that the existing training colleges prepare teachers in the traditional, academic subjects, but there is no institution at present which prepares teachers for technology, agriculture and other practical subjects. Sufficient attention has also not been paid to the training of administrators, career masters, Hindi teachers, and specialists for multipurpose schools. With a view to meeting these new demands, the Indian Ministry of Education proposes to undertake the following programme during the Third Plan period:

1. Establishment of four regional colleges for training teachers in practical subjects;
2. Strengthening the existing colleges and university departments of education
3. Establishment of a Central Institute of Science,

¹ *The Draft Third Five-Year Plan for Education*, pp. 183-185.

4. Training of counsellors in existing training colleges and bureaux of vocational and educational guidance,
5. Training of Hindi teachers for non-Hindi areas, and
6. Training of headmasters and administrators.

The Ministry is also eager to strengthen the existing programme of in-service education of teachers. Besides maintaining the existing 54 extension services training centres, it proposes to extend the scheme to at least 50 more training colleges in the Third Plan, 10 centres being developed every year.

PAY SCALES OF TEACHERS. — The teacher is of paramount importance in a national system of education. Building and equipment are important. So are curricula, books and teaching methods. But no other aspect of education is so vitally significant as are the men and women who conduct the schools—the teachers. It is they who must make the most of the existing opportunities and conditions. It is they who develop and man the curricula. It is they who select, employ and interpret the books, maps, films, recordings and other aids to instruction. In short, as the Draft Report of the Third Five-Year Plan says:

Just as a river cannot rise higher than its source, education cannot rise higher than its teachers. They are the ultimate determinants of its quality and carrying power and construction programmes in education can ignore this fact only at peril.¹

It is, however, found that with the present standard of emoluments in the teaching profession, it is rather difficult to attract well-qualified recruits, who prefer appointments in other departments where service conditions are more attractive. It may be further noted that not only is the standard of emoluments in the teaching profession comparatively low, but the avenues of promotion and advancement in the profession are strictly limited.

At present, scales of pay vary from state to state and from management to management as well as between men and women teachers. The table following gives a comparative statement of scales of pay of trained graduates (holding B.A. and B.T. degrees of some of the states:)

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 176.

TABLE 36

Scales of Salary of Graduate Teachers

Sr. No	Name of the State	Scale of pay for trained graduate teachers.	
		Government secondary schools	Non-Government Secondary schools
1	2	3	4
1	Assam	Rs. 125-7½-155-9-245-E.B.-10-275-plus two advance increments.	Rs. 100-5-200 plus two advance increments
2	Madras	Rs. 85-5-125-10-175	Rs. 75-5-145.
3	Uttar Pradesh ..	Rs 120-8-200-E B.-10-300	Rs. 120-6-168-E.B -8-200
4	Himachal Pradesh ..	Rs 110-8-190-10-250. A selection grade of Rs. 250-10-350. In this selection grade 15% of the Senior teachers are placed.	The scales of teachers in Government schools more or less conform to those prescribed for teachers in Government schools.
5	Delhi	Rs 120-8-200-10-300	Rs 120-8-200-10-300.
6	Kerala ..	Rs 150-10-250 (Grade I) Rs 80-5-120-7½-165 (Grade II)	Rs 80-5-120-7½-165 (Grade II) In non-Government secondary schools there are no posts of 1st Grade teachers
7	Mysore ..	To be started at Rs 85 in the grade of Rs 75-5-90-6-150-10-180-10-200 if the teachers are trained at their own cost. Ordinary Rs 150-10-250 Promotional	As in the case of Government schools
8	Gujarat and Maharashtra	Rs. 70-5-130-6-160-8-200	Ordinary Rs 120-5-170 E.B -8-280-E.B. 10-300 M.A (2nd Class) Rs 150-7½-240-E B.-10-350
9	Orissa ..	Rs. 120-5-155-E B.-5-160-10-220-E.B.-10/2-250.	Rs 100-5-150 E B -8-190-E B -10/2-210
10	Rajasthan ..	Rs. 100-5-135-E.B.-10-225	Rs 100-5-135-E B.-10-225.
11	Andhra Pradesh	Rs. 85-5-125-10-175 (Starting pay Rs. 100) 1/3 of payment cadre on Rs. 165-5-205-10-245	Rs 75-5-154
12	Punjab ..	1. Rs. 110-8-190-10-250 (with a start of Rs. 126 to M.A, M.Sc.M.Ed. III Class B.T.) and Rs 150 p.m. to M.A M.Sc.M.Ed. I and II Class B.T. 2. Rs. 250-10-300.	There is no uniformity in the grades of teachers in various schools in the State Their grades more or less conform to grades of pay of teachers in Government service.

The Government of India advised the states that the minimum salary of no secondary teacher should be lower than Rs. 100/-. Experience in the last two years has, however, shown that many of the states are not in a position to undertake this additional responsibility.

CONCLUSION

One hundred years ago, Matthew Arnold advised the English Government of the day to "organize your secondary instruction."¹ And, in a campaign continued over the next quarter of a century, he insisted that this, of all social reforms, was the one most vital for the maintenance and future development of English culture.

The organization of secondary education meant for him the provision of adequate public secondary schools for the growing middle-classes "a great democratic reform, of the truest, surest, safest kind."² "Its greatest boon," he wrote, "to the offspring of these classes would be its giving them great, honourable, public institutions for their nurture-institutions conveying to the spirit, at the time of life when the spirit is most penetrable, the salutary influences of greatness, honour, and nationality-influences which expand the soul, liberalize the mind, dignify the character."³

Secondary education is in the same position in India today with which England was faced a hundred years ago. It has expanded considerably, and this expansion will continue with an accelerated speed. But quantitative expansion is not enough. We are to-day even more concerned about its qualitative improvement. It has been fully realised that on the quality of secondary education depends the quality of education as a whole. Constructive efforts are, therefore, being made in various parts of the country to remove some of the manifest defects in the system we have inherited. Our infant democracy is still threatened from all sides, and many fissiparous and disruptive tendencies threaten to sap its foundations. We have to struggle against heavy odds and surmount those obstacles which at every step tend to block our progress and prosperity. This is a serious challenge to our educational administrations. We hope that they will rise to the occasion.

¹ *Popular Education*, p. 77.

² *Irish Essays*, 'Ecce Convertimur ad Gentes', p. 99.

³ *A French Eton*, p. 66.

The pattern of university education in India differs from the pattern of university education in the United Kingdom, on the continent of Europe or in the United States of America, where the universities themselves perform teaching functions at the undergraduate as well as the post-graduate levels and there are no institutions corresponding to the affiliated college, which is a peculiar feature of the Indian educational set-up. Of course, London University is an exception, in so far as it has a number of colleges to which the University stands in a relation that is in some respects comparable to that which exists between a federal university like Bombay or Madras and its constituent or affiliated colleges. The difference between the colleges in Oxford and Cambridge and the colleges affiliated to, or forming constituent parts of, the Indian universities arises from the fact that, while the former are mainly residential units, the latter are essentially teaching units. When we speak of university education in our country, we mean not only the education which the universities provide directly through the members of their own teaching staffs, in and through their teaching departments, but also that, for the most part at the undergraduate level, which is given in the affiliated or constituent colleges through their respective teaching staffs, over whom the universities with which the colleges are connected exercise, at best, only a supervisory control.

To elucidate the position further, something needs to be mentioned about the structure of the Indian universities. Broadly speaking, these universities can be classified into four main types, namely, (1) unitary teaching, (2) federal teaching, (3) teaching and affiliating and (4) purely affiliating. Purely affiliating universities, which have no control over the teaching imparted in their affiliated colleges, and are no more than external examining bodies, are rapidly becoming a thing of the past. Even if a university begins functioning as an affiliating university, in due course it assumes teaching functions and associates the teachers in its affiliated colleges with the framing of its courses of study and with its general administration. This is the common pattern on the lines of which the majority of the Indian universities have evolved during the last one hundred years.

The unitary, teaching university, of which there are about twelve today, is a comparatively modern type that came into existence in the second decade of the twentieth century. It has been defined as a university, "usually localized in a single centre, in which the whole

of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by or under the control of the university." The control of the teachers, the actual teaching, the courses of study and the administration are centralized in the university. A unitary, teaching university is usually residential, and the opposite of this proposition is equally true. The following may be mentioned as instances of a unitary, teaching and residential university: Aligarh, Allahabad, Annamalai, Banaras, Baroda, Jadavpur, Lucknow, Roorkee, Sri Venkateswara and Visva-Bharati.

The University of Bombay, as reconstituted in 1953, is an outstanding example of a federal, teaching university. All the undergraduate teaching in Bombay is carried on in its constituent colleges, which are largely autonomous in their internal administration, but can be called upon to pool their resources for post-graduate and post-intermediate teaching. Their principals have seats on the senate, the academic council and the boards of university teaching, and the heads of their departments automatically become members of the university's boards of studies. The Poona University is a federal, teaching university, in relation to the colleges in the Poona area, though it is only an affiliating university in relation to the colleges situated outside that area. The Madras University, too, is a federal, teaching and affiliating university.

In a teaching and affiliating university, the teaching is done in the university's own departments and through constituent colleges, either by the university's own teachers or by teachers of constituent colleges who are recognized by the university. The affiliated colleges teach under the supervision of the university, that is, they have to maintain the conditions of their affiliation with regard to finance, staff, equipment, libraries, laboratories, buildings and hostels. The central core of teaching predominates in some of these universities, e.g., Andhra and Poona with regard to the Poona area; in others, the university restricts itself to teaching in a few of its departments and leaves the rest of the teaching to the affiliated colleges.

The internal government of the universities conforms to a single pattern, with minor variations. Except in a few instances, the governor of the state is the *ex-officio* chancellor or nominal head, and the chief academic and executive head concerned with the day-to-day administration is the vice-chancellor, who is usually a full-time, paid officer, appointed for a fixed term varying from three to five years, and is in most cases eligible for reappointment. The University Education Commission, (1948-49) has recommended that the vice-chancellor should be a person who can command the confidence of the teachers and the students by his academic reputation and by the strength of his personality. He must be the "keeper of the university's conscience", setting the highest standards by his own example and dealing firmly with indiscipline or malpractices of any kind. The vice-chancellor

acts as the *chief liaison* officer between the university and the public. The appointment of the vice-chancellor is usually made by the chancellor from a panel of names submitted to him by the supreme governing body (senate or court, as the case may be). In a few universities the chancellor makes the final selection from a panel of three or more persons recommended by a committee unconnected with the university. Some, though a very few, universities have a pro-vice-chancellor or rector, who assists the vice-chancellor by carrying on some of his duties in his absence.

Each university has at least three authorities: the senate or court, the syndicate or executive council and the faculties. Most of the universities also have an academic council today, although there was no such body in the older universities. A few universities also have boards of university teaching, e.g., Bombay, Poona and Karnatak.

The senate or court is the supreme governing body, with budgetary and appellate powers. It decides broad questions of university policy. Its membership is numerous and represents a large variety of interests, including college principals and teachers, headmasters, registered graduates, commercial and industrial interests, municipalities, local boards, provincial legislatures and donors. Heads of certain government departments are included among its *ex-officio* members. It also includes a certain number of members nominated by the chancellor or the government. The tendency of late has been to reduce the number of nominated members in the newer universities, but the principle of nomination has its own justification. It is useful inasmuch as it enables able educationists, who would not stand for election, either because they are temperamentally averse to canvassing or unable to afford the expense of an election, to give the benefit of their presence to the university. It also gives an opportunity to members of minority communities to get on to the court, which they could never hope to do because of the slender chances of their success in an election. Contacts with commercial and industrial interests are useful from the point of view of securing financial aid for the university and facilities of practical experience and employment for its students.

The syndicate or executive council is the pivotal body in the administration of a university. It administers the funds and properties of the university and runs the day-to-day administration. It is a small body, consisting of the vice-chancellor, the director of public instruction and elected representatives of the supreme governing body, the faculties and principals of colleges. The academic and the lay element in it are usually evenly balanced. The lay element often consists of men of affairs whose worldly wisdom prevents the university from making a *faux pas* in matters involving monetary dealings.

The faculties usually function through boards of studies in the different subjects falling in their purview. Together with the Academic Council, which is mainly concerned with the maintenance of standards of teaching and examinations, and consists of teachers and principals of colleges, they deal with purely academic questions such as the framing of courses of study, the organization of teaching and regulation of examinations. The number of faculties varies from four to twelve, except in one or two universities, such as Roorkee University which has a single faculty. The faculties are really co-ordinating bodies which are expected to look after the common interests relating to the several subjects.

Boards of university teaching exist in a very small number of universities. They control, regulate and co-ordinate undergraduate instruction in the affiliated colleges as well as post-graduate teaching and research, and consist of university teachers and college principals and a few others. Most universities have standing finance committees and statutory boards of selection for university teachers.

Although the supreme governing bodies of the older universities originally consisted of only *ex-officio* and nominated members, the element of election was introduced by slow degrees. There is, at present, a fairly large proportion of elected members in almost all the universities. The system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote by ballot has been adopted in some of the universities in elections to the supreme governing body, the executive and the academic councils and other authorities to ensure a fair representation of minorities. The recent tendency in framing the constitutions of new universities has been to reduce the number and frequency of elections in order to prevent the formation of groups or cliques, and the frittering away of the time and energy of teachers in contesting elections. Rotation, rather than election, is being resorted to when a selection has to be made from a large number of persons to represent a constituency or interest on a university body. In practice, this innovation has shown beneficial results.

Simplification of university procedure can be achieved by a clearer demarcation of the functions of the different authorities, which often overlap, with the result that the same question comes up again and again in the several bodies, leading to endless discussions and the reopening of issues from time to time. While there should be full freedom of discussion in academic matters, a stricter control becomes necessary to regulate the procedure at meetings. This depends not only on adherence to the rules of debate on the part of those participating in it, but on the vigilance of the chairman conducting the meeting. Delays in the disposal of university business can, and ought to, be avoided by cutting out a great amount of red tape which tends to clog the wheels of the administrative machinery in universities no less than in departments of government. If the vice-chancellor is an able

administrator, he will assist in the quick and efficient disposal of business' by avoiding unnecessary duplication or short-circuiting lengthy procedures, without sacrificing principles or essentials. This is all the more necessary because of the ever-increasing volume of university work and correspondence with government departments and the University Grants Commission.

A word may be said here about the relation of the universities to government. While the universities are dependent upon the central or the state legislatures, as the case may be, for their constitution and powers, they enjoy the greatest measure of autonomy in their internal administration. This is as it should be in any enlightened society. Our universities may be said to stand midway between the British and the Continental universities. They are not controlled by government like the universities of France or Italy. At the same time, they do not enjoy the full freedom of their British counterparts, although the control exercised by government, in India, is more indirect than direct. Thus, the head of the state is ordinarily the head of the university. He approves of the appointment of the vice-chancellor. Statutes passed by the governing body of the university become effective only when they receive his approval or the approval of the state government, or can be vetoed by him or his government. The final powers of affiliation and disaffiliation are retained by government. Government indirectly influences the decisions of the universities through the heads of government departments who are *ex-officio* members of the supreme governing bodies, or through the nominated members, though this influence is discernible only on crucial questions which affect government policies in educational matters. University accounts are subject to an annual audit by the government, and the main source of the income of a university is the government grant.

This chapter would be incomplete without a reference to the roles played by the University Grants Commission in the progress and development of the universities and by the Inter-University Board in the co-ordination of their work and the discussion of problems of common interest to them. In 1945, the Government of India appointed a University Grants Committee of four members to advise it on the grants to be made to the central universities. The membership of this Committee was increased in the following two years, and it was empowered to deal with the other universities also. The Chairman of the Committee was a part-time officer. The University Education Commission, in its report (1949), recommended drastic changes in the constitution and powers of this Committee, of which the most important was that it should be given power to allocate grants to universities, within the total limits set by the government, instead of being merely authorized to make recommendations for their allocation by the Finance Ministry.

In November 1953, the Government of India passed a resolution, setting up a University Grants Commission, consisting of a full-time chairman and a secretary and eight members, to act as a body of expert advisers to the Central Government on the allocation of funds as grants-in-aid to the universities and the disbursement of grants out of the funds placed at its disposal. By virtue of an Act of Parliament, passed in 1956, this Commission became a statutory body consisting of nine members, including the chairman whose office is a whole-time, salaried one. The members including the chairman, are appointed by the central government. Its constitution provides that not more than three of the members must be chosen from among the vice-chancellors of universities, and that two of them must be officers of the Central Government. The remaining members must be educationists or persons who have obtained high academic distinction. The Commission is assisted by a full-time paid secretary and staff. It can enlist, from time to time, the assistance of persons whose advice it may need. It enquires into the financial needs of universities, allocates and disburses out of its fund, grants to the central universities for their maintenance and development, and to other universities for their development (but not for maintenance), advises the central and state governments on the allocation of grants, the establishment of new universities or proposals for expanding the activities of existing universities, collects information from and on behalf of universities, and generally takes steps for the promotion and co-ordination of university education and the maintenance of university standards. For the last mentioned purpose, the Commission issues circulars to the universities from time to time. It has sometimes happened, though rarely, that the instructions issued by the Commission have been in the nature of directives which tend to interfere with the autonomy of the universities. This does not appear to have been contemplated by the Act under which the Commission functions.

Realizing the importance of raising the standards of university education in the country, the Commission has rightly given top priority to the improvement of libraries and laboratories, and of the quality of teaching in the universities. It has accordingly been making liberal grants for the strengthening of libraries and laboratories, not only of the universities but of the degree colleges affiliated to them, and for improving the salary scales of teachers in such colleges as well as of university teachers, in view of the fact that most of the education up to the degree stage is provided by affiliated or constituent colleges. It has also made grants to colleges to meet the additional expenditure incurred by them for introducing the integrated three-year degree course. Grants for post-graduate and research work, which used formerly to be made to the universities by the Central Government direct, are now administered by the University Grants Commission from funds placed at its disposal, which, from the point of view of the universities, is a far more satisfactory arrangement on account

of the less formal relations and better understanding which exists between them and the Commission, which is in close and constant touch with the universities, apart from the fact that it includes among its members persons with a long experience of university administration.

Following up a resolution passed by the first conference of Indian universities, held at Simla in 1924, the Inter-University Board of India was set up in 1925 to co-ordinate the work of the Indian universities by providing for the discussion of common university problems, acting as a bureau of information, facilitating the exchange of professors, assisting the universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees by other universities, and in other ways. Membership of the Board is voluntary, although a university desiring to become a member has to make a formal application for being enrolled as a member, which has to be accepted by the Board. The universities are represented on the Board by their vice-chancellors, and, in their absence by members of the syndicate or executive council. The Board meets annually to consider proposals sent up by individual universities and by the Government of India. Quinquennial conferences are held to discuss important university problems. The Board has recently been conducting inter-university tournaments in the major games and in athletics through a subsidiary body called the Inter-University Sports Board, which has a sports representative from each university. The Inter-University Board has a standing committee, which acts as its executive body.

The decisions taken by the Inter-University Board are of a purely recommendatory character. They are not binding on the universities, although the latter naturally give due consideration to them as being recommendations proceeding from the collective wisdom of a body on which all the universities are represented. The Government of India, too, treats these decisions with respect for the same reason. The Inter-University Board has no statutory authority, and corresponds, more or less, to the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom. The Inter-University Board also nominates representatives, not necessarily from within its own membership, to outside bodies with educational interests.

Inasmuch as universities do not function in a vacuum, but form an integral part of national life, they are subject to external as well as internal pressures, which tend to interfere with the maintenance of their standards, and occasionally with the purity of their administration. In order that they may function as free agents, making their decisions purely on the basis of merit and on academic considerations, it becomes necessary for them to resist forms of such pressure which may cause them to deviate from the norms of academic policies and conduct. The purity of academic life and the maintenance of high academic

PROGRESS OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION 1953-54 TO 1960-61 (INSTITUTIONS)

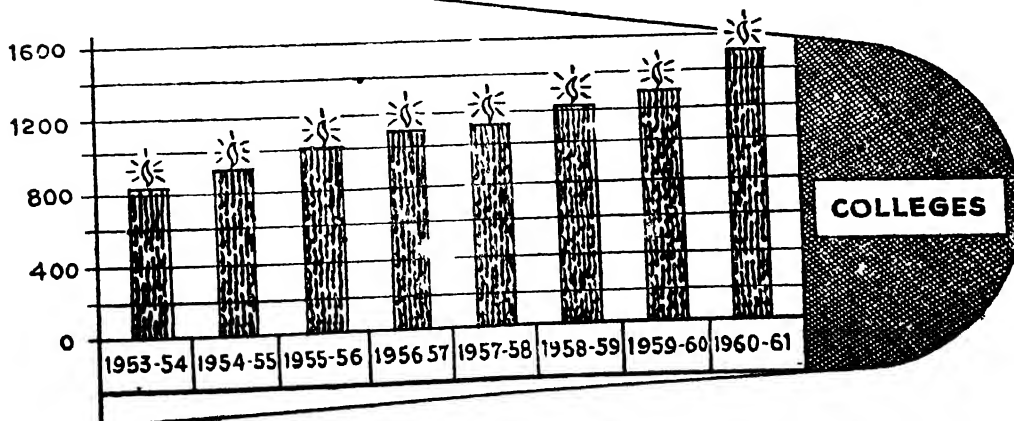
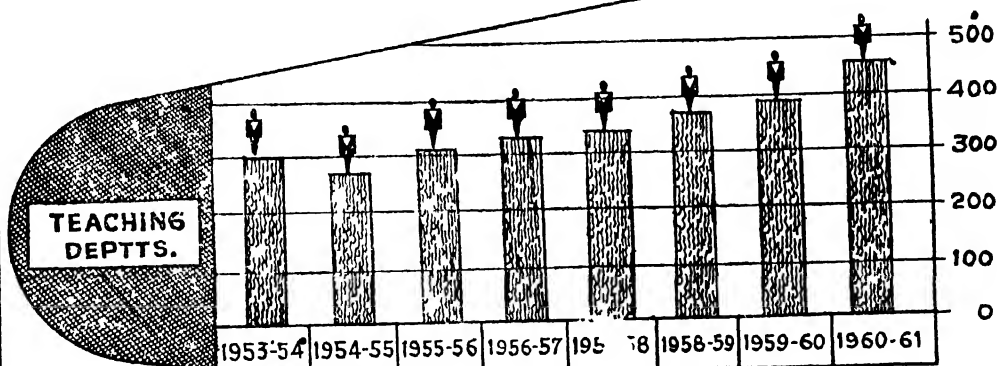
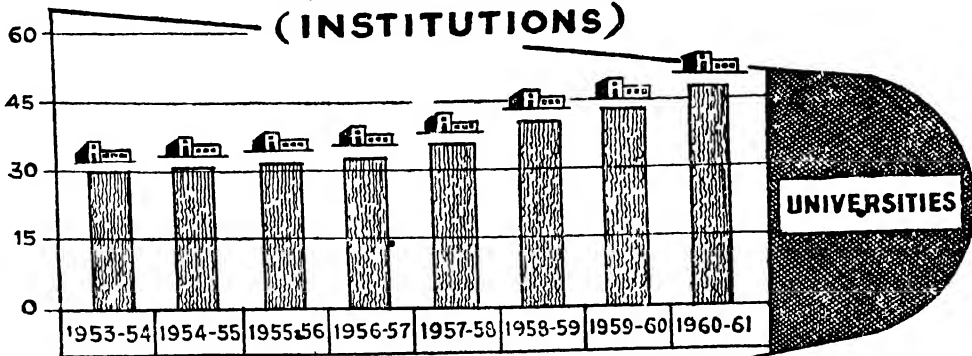


CHART 14

standards can be ensured only if the vice-chancellor, as the head of the university administration, has the strength of character to withstand such pressures from the government or the public, and if the executive council and the other authorities of the university stand solidly behind him. University administrators cannot do better than follow the dictum of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the United Kingdom that "academic standards once lowered are not retrievable and Gresham's law is applicable to them".

Equally with external pressures, internal pressures need to be guarded against to prevent the deterioration of standards of teaching as well as examinations. Such pressures are not less harmful because they spring from within the universities themselves. Fortunately, universities have been adopting measures to overcome them by the adoption of healthy rules and conventions. Thus, practically all universities have laid down the minimum qualifications and teaching experience required for professors, readers, lecturers, tutors and demonstrators appointed as members of their teaching staffs and also for the teaching staffs of colleges. The University Grants Commission also prescribes such qualifications for the guidance of the universities and colleges, which it can enforce by requiring the latter to comply with them as a condition of qualifying for the grants that it makes to them from time to time. So far as university teachers are concerned, the statutory provisions in the university constitutions, which require the appointment of selection committees, are also a guarantee against the appointment of inadequately qualified persons to these posts.

The appointment of examiners at university examinations is controlled by statutory provisions in the University Acts which prevent arbitrary appointments by requiring the Academic Council and the Executive Council to accept the recommendations of special appointment committees, unless they have good reason for departing from them, in which event they have to pass specific resolutions recording their reasons for such departure. In addition to these safeguards, the practice has been established of laying down 'conventions' which prescribe the qualifications and teaching experience of persons to be appointed as paper-setters and examiners, the *quota* of external examiners at the higher examinations and the preparation of panels by boards of studies for each subject.

The prescription of suitable text-books for courses of study for university examinations is a matter which needs particular attention from the universities, and careful watching to see that unsuitable books are not prescribed as the result of pressure or canvassing by publishers or other interested parties whose only interest is in making financial profit or deriving other benefits from a particular prescription. Universities have also got to guard the interests of their students by seeing that the prices of the books prescribed are within

the purchasing power of the students. The problem arises when copyright books or selections, made to suit the requirements of students of a particular class, are prescribed. Some universities have tackled it by publishing their own selections, prepared by the collaboration of their boards of studies, or by experts appointed by them.

Rules and regulations can be of great help in ensuring that, in all matters which relate to academic standards, the decisions arrived at by the relevant authorities of a university are uninfluenced by non-academic or extraneous considerations, and that the sole or main principle underlying a decision is academic merit, whether it relates to the appointment or recognition of teachers, the appointment of examiners or the prescription of courses and text-books. But it is not enough to adhere to the letter of the rule or regulation. What is more important is the spirit in which the rule or regulation is administered. In the last resort, it is the character of the individuals composing the university bodies that will ensure academic integrity and the purity of university administration.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

PROFESSOR P. J. MADAN

INTRODUCTION

Although the first technical institution in India was established well over a century ago, technical education remained almost static for a long time. In fact, its scope was meagre during the 150 years of the British Rule. The impulse for creation of centres of technical training arose out of the necessity for the training of overseers for construction and maintenance of public buildings, roads, canals, and ports and for the training of artisans and craftsmen for the use of instruments and apparatus needed for the army, the navy, and the survey department. The first engineering college was established in Roorkee in the year 1847 for the training of civil engineers. In 1856, three more engineering colleges were opened in Calcutta, Madras and Poona. In the earlier part of the present century, the College of Engineering and Technology was established in Jadavpur in 1906. The most important institute for post-graduate studies in engineering and technology was established by Sir Jamshedji Tata at Bangalore in 1911. The next step was the establishment of the Engineering College at Banaras by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya in 1919. By 1939, at the time of the out-break of the Second World War, there were not more than 10 or 11 engineering colleges in India each with an annual intake of about 200 students only.

The Second World War also showed the need : technicians for the war effort was felt and some attention was paid to the problem of technical education and training. The problem was, however, regarded only as a war-time emergency unrelated to the fundamental and economic aspects of national life and no long range measures were adopted to improve the situation. Nevertheless, an important outcome of our World War II experiences was the formulation of post-war reconstruction plans in all fields. An appreciation that scientific and technical personnel were necessary for the successful execution of these plans also grew gradually in responsible quarters.

At about this time, three important decisions taken by the then government exercised a far-reaching influence on the course of development of technical education in this country. One was the appointment of an *ad hoc* committee (Sarkar Committee) in 1945 for advising on the provision of facilities for advanced technical education in India on the

lines of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The committee recommended that not less than four higher technical institutes—one in the North, one in the South, one in the East and one in the West—will be necessary to satisfy post-war requirements. The second was the establishment of an All-India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) in 1946 to advise on all aspects of improvement and coordinated development of technical education. It has four regional committees—Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western—for supervising technical institutions and for coordinating the provision of technical facilities in their respective regions. The third was the appointment of a Scientific Manpower Committee in 1947 to assess the requirements for various categories of scientific and technical personnel and to recommend measures to meet them. It carried out a quantitative and qualitative assessment of the requirements for technical personnel over a ten-year period, estimated existing shortages in training facilities and recommended various measures to meet the requirements. What is more important is that the committee established for the first time in the country the concept of integrated planning in technical education with a capacity to foresee future requirements for manpower and to meet through organised effort.

Thus, when India attained independence in 1947 a certain amount of awareness of the importance of technical education to national development had been recognized in many quarters. This awareness grew steadily in the post-independence period. The first and second five-year plans accorded high priority to technical education and a large financial provision was made both at the Centre and in the states for the establishment of new institutions and for the development of existing ones. A remarkable expansion of technical education was achieved in the course of ten to twelve years.

In 1947, when India attained independence, there were in the country 38 institutions with a total admission capacity of 2,940 students per year for first degree courses. There were also 53 polytechnics with a total admission capacity of 3,670 students per year for diploma courses. By 1960, the number of institutions for first degree courses increased to 97 and polytechnics to 193. The total admission capacity of the institutions increased to 13,500 students for first degree courses and to 25,290 for diploma courses.¹

During the Third Plan, it is proposed to increase the annual intake of degree students by 6,000, of which 5,000 will be by admissions to the engineering colleges and 1,000 by training through part-time and correspondence courses. The annual intake will thereby rise from 13,200 in 1961 to 19,200 by 1966. Similarly, it is proposed to increase the

¹ *India*, 1961. p. 101.

annual intake of diploma students by 15,000—10,000 by admissions to polytechnics and 5,000 through part-time and correspondence courses.¹

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION. — Education in India, with two important qualifications is a state subject. These qualifications are in respect of university education and technical education. In view of the need for coordination of facilities and the maintenance of standards at the higher levels, the Constitution has placed on the Central Government the responsibility in these regards. The heavy expenses involved in scientific and technical education require that there should be avoidance of any duplication in these fields. The promotion of higher scientific and technical education is, therefore, a central responsibility. There are several important considerations, justifying the concept of central planning and coordination. First, in any system of planned economic development a clear perspective of the different sectors is an essential prerequisite to action, whether at local or regional or central level. Second, when the programmes of economic development include large-sized projects for key industry, power, fuel, transport and communications, etc. in the public sector, it is the primary responsibility of the Centre to ensure that the manpower required for the projects is made available. Third, on a national level, facilities for advanced technological studies and research can be organised satisfactorily only by the Centre, which has also to ensure that the institutions established for the purpose play their due role in the development of the country as a whole. Fourth, the expansion of technical education in a developing country like India involves a heavy financial outlay that is beyond the resources of the states and therefore the Centre has to bear a major part of the expenditure both directly and as grants to the states. Fifth, the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution places upon the Centre the responsibility of coordinating and determining standards in institutions for higher education and research including scientific and technical institutions.

In view of the above considerations, the role of the Centre in the field of technical education has a four-fold objective:

1. to prepare an integrated plan of development of technical education for the country as a whole,
2. to establish higher technological institutions, institutions for specialised courses and other institutions of all-India importance
3. to assist financially and otherwise state governments, universities and other agencies in the establishment of technical institutions; and

¹ Planning Commission. *Third Five Year Plan (A Draft Outline)*. Government of India, 1960. p. 106

4. to watch over the progress of technical education and to ensure the maintenance of high standards.¹

The above are essentially in the nature of educational leadership which the Centre has to provide. In order that India may successfully meet the challenge of the new Atomic Age, that has dawned, and move forward, with other nations, to greater prosperity, it has also been considered necessary to enunciate a scientific policy. By a resolution, the Government of India have decided that the aims of their scientific policy will be:

1. to foster, promote, and sustain by all appropriate means, the cultivation of science, and scientific research in all its aspects—pure, applied and educational;

2. to ensure an adequate supply, within the country, of research scientists of the highest quality, and to recognize their work as an important component of the strength of the nation;

3. to encourage, and initiate, with all possible speed, programme for the training of scientific and technical personnel, on a scale adequate to fulfil the country's needs in science and education, agriculture, and industry, and defence;

4. to ensure that the creative talent of men and women is encouraged and finds scope in scientific activity;

5. to encourage individual initiative for the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, and for the discovery of new knowledge, in an atmosphere of academic freedom;

6. and, in general, to secure for the people of the country all the benefits that can accrue from the acquisition and application of scientific knowledge.²

THE MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS. — Till February 10, 1950, technical education and scientific research were in charge of the Union Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. It is now looked after by a separate Division for Technical Education under the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. It assists in the formulation of and carrying out policies and programmes. The Division has four regional offices at Calcutta, Bombay, Kanpur and Madras. The first two offices were set up in 1950, and the the third and fourth during 1955-56. The main activities of the regional offices relate to the following:

1. to secure practical training facilities in industry and other establishments for the students of technical institutions;

2. to survey the facilities of technical education and training and to prepare detailed plans for the development of technical education in the region on the advice of the Regional Committee;

¹ L. S. Chandra Kant. *Technical Education In India*. Delhi, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, 1961. pp. 38-39. (The writer has drawn freely from this publication in writing this Chapter and begs to acknowledge his indebtedness to its author).

² Government of India, *Scientific Policy Resolution*. No. 131/CF/57 dated the 14th March, 1958.

3. to bring about liaison between industry and technical institutions and between the Central Government and the State Government concerned in the matter of technical education;

4. to advise on the standard of courses to be adopted in the institutions and to watch over the progress of the development of the institutions obtaining grants from the Central Government;

5. to function as the Secretariat of the Regional Committees concerned of the All-India Council for Technical Education.¹

The territorial jurisdiction of the regional committees of which the regional offices are functioning as the secretariat is as under:

1. *Northern Region:* Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir, Delhi and Himachal Pradesh.

2. *Eastern Region:* Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, Orisa, Manipur, Tripura, Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

3. *Western Region:* Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh.

4. *Southern Region:* Madras, Andhra, Mysore, Kerala and Pondicherry, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindiv Islands.²

THE ALL-INDIA COUNCIL FOR TECHNICAL EDUCATION (AICTE). — The most important machinery set up by the Central Government to provide leadership in technical education to the entire country is the AICTE. It was formed in the year 1945, as a result of the recommendations made by the Central Advisory Board of Education. As a national body, the AICTE advises the Centre, the states, University Grants Commission and other authorities on all aspects of improvement and development of technical education. Its functions include *inter alia*, the preparation of plans for the development of technical education on an all-India basis; to assess the requirements for technical manpower of different types and to suggest measures required to meet them; to suggest improvements in the pattern of technical education from time to time to suit changing conditions; to establish liaison between industry, government departments and other organisations on the one hand and technical institutions on the other; to coordinate the activities of State Boards of Technical Education; to recommend grants and other forms of assistance that might be given by the Centre to the states, universities and other organisations for the development of technical education.

While recommending the establishment of the Council, the Central Advisory Board of Education envisaged that the Council should be a representative of all the main interests

¹ Estimates Committee. *Technical Education, Part II*. New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958, *Loc. cit.* p. 29.

² L. S. Chandra Kant. *op. cit.* p. 40.

concerned, with technical education. The present constitution of the Council is given below:

- 1 Chairman—Minister for Education and Scientific Research, Central Government. (On occasions when he is unable to preside over a meeting of the Council, the Educational Adviser (Technical) to the Government of India will deputise for him.)
- 2 Education Adviser (Technical) to the Government of India.
- 3 Chairmen of the Regional Committees of the Council (ex-officio).
- 4 Chairmen of the All India Boards of Technical Studies (ex-officio).
- 5 Representatives of the Ministries and Department of the Government of India
- 6 Two members of the Lok Sabha elected by it.
7. One member of the Rajya Sabha elected by it.
8. One representative of each of the States, and three representatives of Union Territories—the latter to be nominated by the Central Government.
9. Eight representatives of Industry and Commerce to be nominated by organisations approved by the Government of India.
10. Four representatives of Labour to be nominated by organisations approved by the Government of India.
11. One member of the Central Advisory Board of Education.
12. One member of the Inter-University Board of India.
13. One representative of the Association of Principals of Technical Institutions in India
14. Two representatives of Professional Bodies.
- 15 Not more than two members nominated by the Government of India to represent other interests.

The term of office of all non-official members who were first elected or nominated to the Council shall be 3 years reckoned from the first day of the first meeting of the Council, namely the 30th April 1946, and the term of office of all non-official members subsequently elected or nominated shall be three years reckoned from the appropriate anniversary of the day; provided that a member elected or nominated under clause (6), (7), (11), and (12) above shall cease to be a member of the Council of States, the Central Advisory Board of Education or the Inter-University Board of India as the case may be. The official members of the Council will continue until they are replaced by others. All casual vacancies among the members (other than ex-officio members) shall be filled by the authority or body who nominated or elected the member whose place becomes vacant, and the person appointed to a

casual vacancy shall be a member of the Council for the residue of the term for which the person whose place he fills would have been a member.¹

The scope of the Council in regard to technical education covers: (1) all engineering and technological subjects, (2) management studies, (3) commerce, (4) architecture and regional planning, and (5) applied arts including printing technology.

It is noteworthy that the Council functions with fewer handicaps than most other advisory bodies, whose relations with the administrative authorities are vague and whose recommendations are subject to further examination. As a matter of convention, the recommendations of the Council are accepted by the central and state governments. The fact that technical education is not a controversial subject has also facilitated the work of the Council.

For the correct discharge of its functions the All-India Council for Technical Education has set up a co-ordinating committee, four regional committees and seven boards of technical studies. The co-ordinating committee is the executive committee of the Council and co-ordinates the work of the regional committees and boards of studies.

REGIONAL COMMITTEES.—The four regional committees have been set up in distinct regions in the country with headquarters at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Kanpur. Their respective territorial coverage corresponds to that of the regional offices of the Ministry of Scientific Research and Culture Affairs. As discussed earlier, the regional offices are functioning as the secretariat of the regional committees.

The importance of regional committees in promoting a co-ordinated development of technical education in the different parts of the country cannot be overemphasised. The very vastness of the country raises many and varied problems of development that require to be examined in the light of the conditions prevailing in and the needs of each region. Schemes for the establishment of new and for the improvement and development of existing institutions have to be formulated and implemented on a regional basis. A constant watch over the progress of the institutions which are spread over the whole country has to be maintained and expert advice and assistance to institutions that are in need, have to be provided. These and many other tasks can be performed satisfactorily only through appropriate regional agencies, specially set up for the purpose and working in close cooperation with local authorities.

Each regional committee consists *inter alia* of representatives of the state governments within its area, representatives of industry, commerce and labour, technical institutions,

¹ Estimates Committee. *Technical Education, Part I*. New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 1958. pp. 46-47.

state boards, universities and experts. Constituted in this manner the committees are fully representative of all authorities and interests concerned with technical education in their respective areas. Their main functions are:

1. to survey facilities for technical education at all stages and to make recommendations on the development of technical education, including the establishment of new institutions wherever necessary;
2. to make a preliminary examination of any institution seeking recognition;
3. to tender advice and guidance to technical institutions within the region;
4. to promote liaison between technical institutions and industry;
5. to assist the states and institutions in securing practical training facilities.¹

ALL-INDIA BOARDS OF TECHNICAL STUDIES. — There are seven boards, and they advise the AICTE on all technical matters pertaining to their respective fields. They lay down the standards and frame courses in a variety of subjects, that serve as a guide to the institutions in the country and qualify students for the award of National Diplomas and Certificates. The seven boards cover the fields of (1) Engineering and Metallurgy, (2) Chemical Engineering and Chemical Technology, (3) Architecture and Regional Planning, (4) Textile Technology, (5) Applied Art, (6) Commerce, and (7) Management Studies.²

In addition to representatives of technical institutions, universities, industry and commerce, each board consists of experts who are appointed by the All-India Council in order to bring to bear on the work of the boards expert knowledge and guidance in the concerned fields. In the last 14 years that the boards have been functioning, much valuable work has been done in formulating courses of study for degrees and diplomas in various branches, on an all-India basis that have served as a guide to technical institutions. The standards of instructional facilities like buildings, equipment and staff suggested by the boards have formed the basis on which the regional committees assess the requirements of institutions and recommend grants. The boards have also advised the Council from time to time on specialised courses to meet the needs of industry and commerce and formulated various schemes for the purpose.

CONCLUSION. — It should be realised that the AICTE has proved to be a very effective national body for technical education in this country. It receives the necessary guidance and assistance from the coordinating committee, four regional committees and the seven boards of technical studies.

¹ C. L. Chandra Kant. *op. cit.* p. 41.

² G. K. Chandiramani. *Technical Education in India*, Delhi, Ministry of Education, 1956. p. 3.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND THE STATES

INTRODUCTION.— It has already been pointed out that education is a state subject, as such it is the primary responsibility of the states to organise, develop and administer technical education and training within their respective areas. Till recently, however, the organisational and administrative set-up in many states was unsatisfactory. There was no single department in the state government fully responsible for technical education and a variety of arrangements existed. In some states technical institutions were under the administrative control of Industries Departments, in some under the Public Works Departments and in others under the Education Departments. In a few states, Industries Departments and Public Works Departments performed overlapping functions. In the same state, the Industries Department was in charge of certain technical institutions and the Public Works Department in charge of others. Each department laid down its own standards for the courses conducted by institutions under its control, held examinations departmentally and awarded diplomas and certificates.

STATE BOARDS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION -- As schemes for the expansion of technical education on a large scale were formulated under the five-year plans, it was realised that a unified approach to the problems of organisation and administration of institutions was necessary at the state level. More important, when a large number of institutions, especially polytechnics were established in all states, it became necessary to ensure that the institutions maintained high standards of instruction, and their examinations were conducted by an independent body on a uniform basis. The All-India Council for Technical Education, therefore, recommended that in each state there should be set up a directorate of technical education in the government and a state board of technical education. The constitution and functions of these boards are given below:

A Constitution

- (1) State Minister of Education (Chairman)
- (2) (3), (4), (5), Four representatives of the State Government Departments, viz., Industry, Labour, P.W.D. and Finance.
- (6), (7), (8) Three principals of technical institutions
- (9) A representative of labour
- (10), (11), (12) Three representatives of Industry and Commerce, nominated by Government
- (13) A representative of the regional committee of the All-India Council for Technical Education.
- (14) A representative of the university.
- (15), (16) Two experts either co-opted by the Board as a whole or nominated by Government.

(17) Director of Technical Education/Head of Technical Education Unit (Ex-officio Member and Secretary).

The above composition of the board may, however, be changed to suit the conditions obtaining in each state.

B. Functions

1. To advise the Government on the coordinated development of technical education in the state at all levels.
2. To work in liaison with the regional committees of the All-India Council in the formulation of schemes for its area.
3. To affiliate or recognize institutions not conducting university courses and prescribe courses of study for them.
4. To inspect institutions periodically and ensure that the standards of the courses and the instructional facilities provided are satisfactory.
5. To conduct examinations and award diplomas and certificates conforming to the minimum standards prescribed by the All-India Council.
6. To establish and develop co-operative relationships with Industry and Commerce.¹

The recommendations of the Council have been accepted generally by all states and they have set up their own state boards of technical education. In most states one single government department is now in administrative charge of technical institutions. The establishment of this new organisational set-up for technical education in the states is of great importance. It has not only helped in ensuring uniform standards on an all-India basis, but in associating various interests with the development of technical education and coordinating their efforts.

COURSES AND INSTITUTIONS

STRUCTURE OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.—Technical education in India is a four tiered structure comprising post-graduate courses and research, first degree courses, diploma courses, and vocational or industrial training. Each tier is a self-contained aspect intended to serve a specific purpose and neither the diploma courses nor the industrial courses are a preparation for the next higher tier. For post-graduate courses and research, however, only those candidates who have the first degree are admitted. Post-graduate courses leading to Master's degree or equivalent award are generally of one or two years' duration and provide for specialisation in a branch of a major field in formal instruction, project work and independent study of a chosen problem presented as a

¹ Estimates Committee. *Technical Education, Part II. op. cit.* p. 57.

STRUCTURE OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION

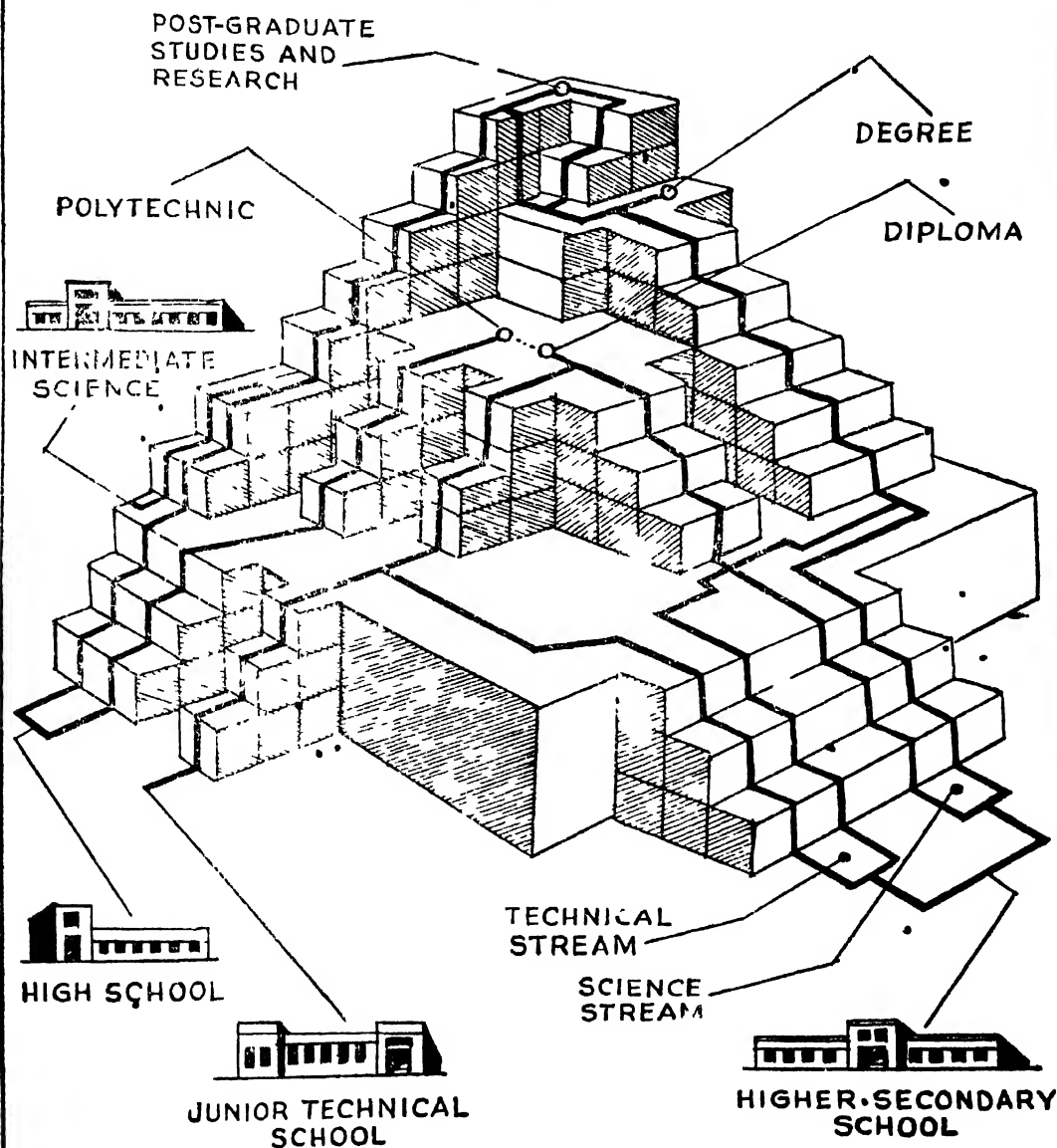


CHART 15

dissertation. Research degrees like the Ph.D. or D.Sc. are awarded on the basis of original research done by candidates at recognised centres.

The duration of the first degree course is generally four years with the Intermediate in Science as the minimum admission qualification. A few technological institutions in the country, particularly in the western region have, however, prescribed a three-year curriculum (instead of four years) for the first degree, while as some others have prescribed a four years' integrated degree with Preparatory Science or First Year Science or Higher Secondary as the minimum admission qualification. The first degree course provides training in the main fields of technology, viz., civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, electrical communication engineering, chemical engineering, mining, metallurgy, textile engineering, agricultural engineering, leather technology, architecture. Courses in instrument technology, automobile engineering and aeronautical engineering are also offered by some institutions at the first degree or equivalent level.

However on account of the rapid progress made in recent years in the field of engineering and technology and further on account of the reorganisation of secondary education in the country, the All-India Council of Technical Education has recommended the replacement of the present 3 or 4 year courses in engineering and technology with a five year integrated degree course in the respective branches with Higher Secondary School Certificate as the minimum admission qualification. A number of universities and technical institutions in the country have already switched over to the five-year degree course, and many others are expected to switch over to the new course in the near future.

Next to the first degree courses, diploma courses occupy an important position in technical education in India. These courses are conducted by a large number of institutions called polytechnics and are designed to train technicians who will eventually occupy supervisory positions like foremen, overseers, etc. in industry and other technical organisations. These are of three years duration after high school education and have a practical bias. The diploma courses are offered in the main fields of civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. A few institutions also offer textile technology, leather technology, mining engineering and other fields according to regional requirements for technical personnel at this level. Vocational and industrial training is given through various types of technical and industrial schools.

An interesting feature of the pattern of technical education is the relative prominence of different fields of study which is also an indication of the state of industrial development in the country. On the basis of 1959 admissions to degree and diploma courses, distribution of seats between the various fields of technology are given in Table 37.

Till recently, civil engineering accounted for nearly 37 per cent of the total seats at the first degree level and nearly 50 per cent at the diploma level. Next in order, came electrical and mechanical engineering that enjoyed equal importance. This distribution has not been accidental. It was the result of development of the institutions over the past fifty years in accord with the pattern of employment of technical personnel.

TABLE 37*

Distribution of States in Various Technical Fields, 1957

Fields	Number of seats	
	Degree	Diploma
Civil Engineering	4,192	10,2210
Mechanical Engineering	2,325	4,570
Electrical Engineering	2,329	4,580
Electrical Communication Engineering ...	375	240
Mining	290	455
Metallurgy	239	10
Chemical Engineering & Chemical Technology	485	—
Aeronautical Engineering	30	—
Textile Technology	282	311
Leather Technology	20	115
Architecture	285	—
Other fields	658	819
Total ...	11,510	21,370

L. S. Chandrakant. *Technical Education*. Delhi, Ministry of Scientific Education and Cultural Affairs, 1961. p. 3.

Due to the rapid industrialization of the country, the position has now changed. The demand for mechanical and electrical engineering seats has increased considerably. They enjoy the most prominent place. Civil engineering occupies the third place in order of preference of seats in engineering institutions.

INSTITUTIONS. — There are at present 97 institutions for first degree or equivalent courses and 193 institutions for diploma courses. All first degree institutions are affiliated to universities and conduct courses as are prescribed by the universities. The higher technological institutes at Kharagpur, Bombay, Madras and Kanpur, and the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, award their own degrees or diplomas.

Diploma courses are generally offered in polytechnics, which give training chiefly in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. Except for a few institutions that are

under the direct control of universities, all polytechnics are affiliated to State Boards of Technical Education in different states. The state boards prescribe the courses of study, conduct examinations and award diplomas. Uniformity of standards on an all-India basis is maintained through the All-India Council for Technical Education, which has formulated National Certificate courses to serve as a model for the diploma courses conducted at polytechnics.

Skilled and semi-skilled workers generally take up their occupations after their high school studies. It is, therefore, at this stage that students should be guided and directed to secure training in different occupational and trade courses depending upon the pattern of industries situated within a particular area. On recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission, the Indian Ministry of Education has reoriented secondary education in the country to meet the above demand. Facilities for scientific and technical education are being gradually extended in multipurpose schools or technical higher secondary schools. Another innovation is the junior technical school, which is a special type of secondary school. Designed specifically for students who wish to enter industry and other technical occupations, the school offers a three-year integrated course in general education, technical education and technical training in various engineering trades. It accepts fully the concept of 'Double Finality' within its curriculum of educational development of the student from 14 to 17 and of his effective preparation for a definite technical occupation in life. In each year of the course, general education, technical studies and workshop training are so integrated that all these three elements together constitute the base for the total development of the young student. Another scheme for technical schools is under the examination of the National Council for Vocational Trades. It stipulates the observance of the same hours of work per day at a factory and also the benefit of the normal vacations as in a school.

The most encouraging advance in the field of technical education during recent years is the organization of post-graduate teaching. Before 1947, there was hardly an institution which provided facilities for post-graduate studies and research in engineering. Indian students had to go abroad to U.K., Germany, U.S.A. and other countries for advanced training. Today, as many as thirty-four institutions are providing facilities for post-graduate studies and research to nearly 500 scholars. The fields of study also cover a wide range of subjects, some of which, as for instance, power engineering, dam construction and irrigational engineering, production engineering, advanced electronics, aeronautical engineering are of special importance to the development of the country.

INSTITUTIONS BY MANAGEMENTS. — Technical institutions are classified into government, non-government and university depending upon whether they are financed and managed by the central or state governments, private agencies and universities respectively. Of the 275 institutions in the country at present for the first degree and diploma courses, 158 have been established by the central and state governments, 29 by universities and 88 by private agencies. In quantitative terms, the institutions established by private agencies account for nearly 35 per cent of the total number of seats.¹

It should be realised that though the post-war development plans for technical education were ambitious, yet not enough attention had been paid to the requirements of non-government institution in the country. The AICTE appreciated the danger of such a situation and immediately took up the question of improvement and strengthening of private institutions. On its suggestion, the Central Government adopted a definite policy of encouraging and assisting private enterprise. Where a private institution by itself or in association with the state government raises enough funds to meet fifty per cent of the non-recurring (buildings and equipment) and fifty per cent of the recurring expenditure for a technical institution, the Central Government provides the balance of the amounts required, as grant-in-aid. The Central Government also gives interest-free loans for the construction of hostels. As a result of this policy, nine engineering colleges and 25 polytechnics have been established by private agencies during the second plan period as against nine colleges and 45 polytechnics established by state governments and universities. Private enterprise, therefore, now constitutes a very important element of technical education in India and supplements in a large measure the efforts of the state. In order to ensure that the private institutions are run on the right lines and maintain proper standards, governing bodies that include representatives of the Central Government and state governments and the AICTE have been set up for the administration and management of the affairs and finances of the institutions.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES — Another notable feature of recent years is the rise of professional societies of engineering, which have two-fold functions—to promote and advance the science and practice of engineering, and to ensure that only persons of the right type and with the requisite qualifications enter the profession.

The first professional engineering society to be established in India is the Institution of Engineers which came into being in 1920. It was organised and developed on the same lines as the Institution of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers (London) and received a Royal Charter in 1835. As the field of engineering widened and new

¹ C. L. Chandra Kant. *op. cit.*, p. 18.

PROGRESS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

1947-48 TO 1960-61

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT'S EXPENDITURE

RS. IN CRORES

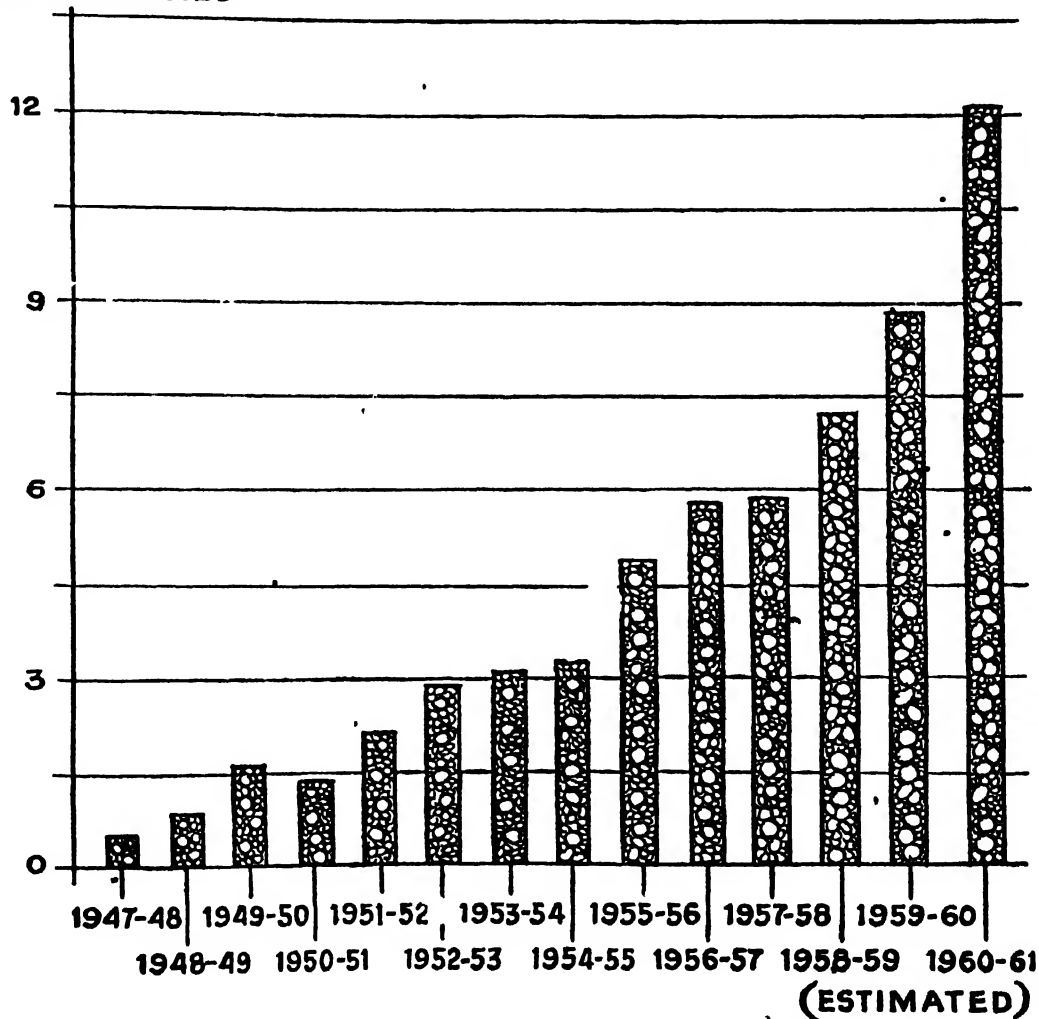


CHART 16

branches were added, separate professional societies were established to promote the new branches. There are today three other professional societies, viz., the Indian Institute of Chemical Engineers, the Institution of Tele-Communication Engineers (India) and the Aeronautical Society of India that are concerned respectively with chemical engineering, electrical communication engineering and aeronautical engineering. There are also other societies as, for instance, the Mining, Metallurgical and Geological Institute of India, and the Institute of Metals which are both scientific and professional bodies.

How far have the Institution of Engineers and other professional bodies helped to advance technical education and training in India? It is hard to answer the question at this stage since it is only in the last five or six years that the business of technical education has been pursued vigorously and that is too short a period in which any professional body could make its impact felt either qualitatively or quantitatively. Nevertheless, these various professional bodies are represented on the All-India Council for Technical Education, its Boards of Studies and other Committees where the benefit of their counsel and advice on various problems is secured. It is to be hoped that the Institution of Engineers and its sister engineering societies will play their rightful part in the future development of technical education along correct lines and establish close collaboration between technical institutions and the engineering profession.

FINANCING TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Prior to independence, the expenditure of the Central Government on technical education was practically nil and the bulk of the finances required was provided by the states, however, meagre that was. The contribution of private agencies was negligible. As the initiative of the Centre in the development of technical education grew, the Central Government has been providing funds in an increasing measure every year, not only for its own institutions but as assistance to state governments and private institutions. There was a corresponding increase in the expenditure on the part of the state governments and private agencies. Today, the finances for technical education as a whole are derived mainly from these three sources, viz., the Central Government, state governments and private agencies.

The progressive increase of the Central expenditure on technical education over the period 1947-48 to 1960-61 is given in the chart facing this page. The first great fillip came with the First Five-Year Plan. During that plan period the Centre provided about Rs. 16.33 crores for technical education. A much larger outlay, viz., Rs. 40.1 crores which is more than twice that in first plan has been provided for the Second Five-Year Plan. These amounts include both developmental and normal expenditure. So far as the states

are concerned, the outlay during the First Plan was of the order of Rs. 7.0 crores. In the Second Plan they are expected to spend about Rs. 26.66 crores, exclusive of the assistance received from the Centre.¹

Exact figures of the expenditure incurred by private agencies are not readily available, but it is estimated that this sector has contributed on an average about Rs. 40-45 lakhs per year in the last three to four years. The importance of technical education in the national plan is further underlined by the fact that a much larger outlay is proposed in the Third Five-Year Plan. According to the present estimates, an amount of about Rs. 176 crores is required to press on with the expansion of technical education at all levels, as recommended by the Planning Commission.

The increasing outlay on technical education is not entirely due to the establishment of an increasing number of institutions and a similar quantitative expansion of the facilities. It is in part due to the fact that the cost of technical education itself is rising sharply. No reliable data are available regarding the cost of establishment of an engineering college or polytechnic prior to 1950, since few, if any, new institutions, were then established. Also, no standards of instructional facilities required for degree or diploma courses in various subjects had been laid down. On the basis of the standards now laid down by the All-India Council for Technical Education, an engineering college with an annual admission capacity of 120 students for civil, mechanical and electrical engineering costs today about Rs. 40 lakhs for buildings and equipment alone. The cost of land and its development for the establishment of the college, providing essential services, hostels, staff quarters, etc. are all extra. The running expenses of the college are of the order of Rs. 8 lakhs per year, if the salary scales recommended by the All-India Council are offered to the staff. Not more than 25 per cent of the running expenditure is met by the income from tuition fees. Similarly, the cost of polytechnic also has gone up and is of the order of Rs. 18 lakhs for buildings and equipment and Rs. 3 lakhs per year for recurring expenditure. When courses in special fields as, for instance, mining, metallurgy, chemical engineering, etc. are added to a college, the cost goes up further.

A major financial and organisational problem confronting planners, therefore, is how to bring down the cost without sacrificing standards? The problem has two aspects. The first involves a consideration of the *per capita* expenditure. If the *per capita* expenditure is brought down by making an institution work longer hours and train a larger number of students, a quantitative expansion of the facilities can be secured at less cost than is otherwise possible. An attempt in this direction has already been made in the current

¹ *Ibid.* p. 43.

plan period and the training capacity of a number of institutions has been expanded in preference to new institutions being established for the additional number of students. Whether the same principle should not be extended to new programmes has to be examined in detail in the light of the actual experience gained in the last two-three years.

The second aspect involves the development of indigenous scientific instruments industry. According to the present estimates, at least 50 per cent of the equipment required by an engineering college and 30 per cent of the equipment required by a polytechnic have to be imported. The prices of imported equipment are rising steeply and in the last three years alone, the prices of many items have gone up by about 50 per cent on an average. Apart from foreign exchange difficulties, such a large increase in the prices can upset completely the targets of a plan. The institutions will be hard put to it to equip themselves fully within the allotted funds. The solution to the problem lies in the development of indigenous industry and making the country self-sufficient in respect of essential scientific equipment of quality and precision. The institutions themselves should be encouraged to make in their own workshops as many items of equipment required by them as possible. An expert committee of the All-India Council for Technical Education has gone into this question and suggested various measures for securing economy in respect of equipment for technical institutions.

There is also the question of buildings that account for about 50 per cent of the capital cost of a technical institution. The practice so far has been to construct buildings in the traditional styles and on a grandiose scale with an eye to architectural embellishments rather than purely functional and economically designed buildings. Unless a radical departure from the current practice is made, technical education will remain an unnecessarily expensive proposition for India. Grand and expensive buildings are not synonymous with good institutions and many great engineers have risen from humble beginnings. We should revise our order of priority; give the first place to staff, the second to equipment and the last to buildings.

No study on technical education in India would be complete without a reference to foreign aid, that has played no small part in the recent developments in this field. The aid has been given by many countries generously and in a spirit of cooperation and has been readily accepted by us. It comprises scientific and technical equipment, the services of expert professors in various branches of technology and facilities for the training of teachers of our institutions abroad. These are the three essential things that we are much short of for the establishment and development of institutions of advanced technological studies.

The first foreign aid to come was under the UNESCO programme. Since 1951 this aid has been extended every year for developing facilities for advanced studies and research at selected centres. Aid under other programmes, as for instance T.C.M. of the U.S.A., Colombo Plan, etc. followed in increasing measure. Recently, under bi-lateral and other arrangements, very large assistance has been provided by certain countries in the establishment and development of entire technological institutions. Special mention must be made of the assistance provided by the U.S.S.R. for the Western Higher Technological Institute at Bombay, by the Federal Republic of Germany for the Southern Higher Technological Institute at Madras, by the United Kingdom for the College of Engineering and Technology at Delhi, and by the U.S.A. for the Higher Technological Institute at Kanpur. It is the valuable aid of these countries that will accelerate the establishment and development of these important institutions.

The extent of foreign aid provided or promised for technical education in India is given in the following table.

TABLE 38*

Foreign Aid to Technical Education

Aid Programme/Country	Technical Aid Promised or Received upto 1960		
	No. of experts	Value of equipment in Rs. lakhs	No. of Fellowships for training of Indian staff.
1. T.C.M. of the U.S.A.	88	163.27 ⁽¹⁾	106
2. Colombo Plan	37	52.08	24
3. UNESCO & UNTAA	18	13.47	30
4. U.S.S.R. Aid for Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay under UNESCO Programme.	18	166.80	20
5. U.S.S.R. for Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay.	—	36.00	—
6. West Germany.	24	170.00	20
TOTAL	185	601.62	200

(1) Exclusive of aid of Rs. 107.5 lakhs provided by the U.S.A. out of the Rupee Fund for Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur, for buildings and indigenous equipment.

In addition a large number of teachers of technical institutions have been sent abroad for training on fellowships offered by various countries. So far over 500 teachers have been trained or are under training notably in the U.S.A., U.S.S.R., U.K., West Germany and France.

* C. L. Chandra Kant. *Technical Education in India*. Delhi, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, 1961. p. 47.

TECHNICAL STUDENT AND EXPENDITURE

A very important aspect in the education of an engineering student is the expenditure incurred by him on his education. This expenditure, as compared to other fields of education, has always been high and is increasing every year. It is estimated that a student of an engineering degree course has to spend today about Rs. 150 p.m. on his fees, lodging and boarding at a college hostel and other items. He has also to spend at least about Rs. 500/- on books, instruments, tools, etc. for the entire course. For the diploma course, the average expenditure varies from Rs. 80 to 100 p.m. In our present economic position, that is undoubtedly beyond the resources of a large number of our students. Many a deserving student in indigent circumstances therefore is either unable to continue technical studies or does so with extreme difficulty. State aid to him in the form of scholarships, stipends, etc. is therefore necessary.

Till 1959, the number of scholarships and stipends available at a majority of our technical institutions was extremely small. It covered barely 5 per cent of the students studying at institutions. Their value too was inadequate to meet the full expenses of the students. In order to improve the position, the Central Government in 1959 formulated and implemented a scheme of Merit-cum-Means scholarships for students of all technical institutions. Under the scheme 1,040 scholarships have been instituted for the students of degree and diploma courses. Each scholarship is tenable for the full course of studies of the students concerned and is of the value of Rs. 75 p.m. for degree students and Rs. 50 p.m. for diploma students. The scholarship holders are either exempted from the tuition fees by their own institutions or have their scholarships increased by an amount equal to the fees payable by them. It is proposed to institute another 1,040 scholarships in 1960-61 for fresh entrants.

In addition, all four higher technological institutes as also the eight regional engineering colleges, that have been sponsored by the Central Government, have made provision for the award of scholarships of an adequate value of 20-25 per cent of their students.

Nevertheless, even with these Merit-cum-Means scholarships and the provision made at the higher technological institutes and regional colleges, only 5 per cent of the new entrants to technical institutions are covered by scholarship. The rest have to depend upon their own meagre resources to finance their technical studies. It is, therefore, unnecessary to emphasise the urgent need to increase the number of scholarships and stipends for meritorious poor students. A minimum coverage of 25 per cent has to be aimed at all institutions in the course of next five years.

So far as post-graduate studies and research are concerned, the position is more satisfactory. From the very beginning, the All-India Council for Technical Education insisted that at least 50 per cent of the places in post-graduate courses should carry scholarships of the value of Rs. 150 p.m. This was accepted by the Central Government and a provision was accordingly made at all centres of post-graduate studies. After a further review of the matter, the All-India Council recommended recently that cent per cent of the places should carry scholarships and the value of the scholarships should be increased to Rs. 250 p.m., in view of the high cost of education at this level and the need to attract really first rate students to post-graduate studies who will otherwise seek attractive professional appointments after graduation. This has also been accepted by the Central Government. As a result nearly 500 scholarships of a reasonably good value are or will shortly be available for post-graduate studies in various branches of technology.

On the recommendations of the Scientific Manpower Committee, the Central Government in 1949 implemented a scheme of Research Training scholarships to encourage bright young students to do research in basic sciences after M. Sc. or in Technology after graduation in that field, at universities and other educational centres. Initially 200 scholarships were sanctioned. In the course of the last ten years, the number has been increased to 800. Each research scholarship is of the value of Rs. 200 p.m. and is tenable for a period of three years for an individual scholar. A number of these research scholarships have been made available at various technical institutions for research in technology.

It has nevertheless been observed that a good proportion of the research scholarships sanctioned for technology are not being utilised. The main reason is again the relatively greater attraction of professional employment than research. The former offers to a bright young graduate an assured career in industry or in a government department and if it happens to be an engineering service that he joins, the service offers prospects of quick advancement whose temptation is irresistible to most. On the other hand, in the present national situation, research is an uncertain affair, though more challenging intellectually, less rewarding financially. The number of well-paid research positions as compared to occupation in other fields is extremely limited. Therefore, if research has to be promoted in the larger interests of the country's advancement, greater inducements have to be offered to young bright graduates to come for research. The All-India Council for Technical Education has recommended that research fellowships of the value of Rs. 400/- p.m. should be instituted for post-graduate research in technology. Other expert committees have recommended various measures to make research career more attractive and to raise its level to that of other professional services. It is to be hoped that when these measures

are implemented and research is organised and developed as an essential activity of major industrial concerns in the private and in the public sector, technical departments of government and other organisations, there will be an increasing flow of research students to technological institutions.

The next question is the provision of adequate facilities for the students of technical institutions. With a large increase in the number of institutions and the student enrolment nearing 100,000, the demand for hostel accommodation is increasing correspondingly. When a large number of students have to leave their homes to join technical institutions located far away, their residence, their health and corporate life, their discipline are all serious matters that concern educational authorities and parents alike. It is only when an institution has its own hostel to provide the necessary residential facilities to its students that it can ensure their care and welfare. The establishment of a hostel is, therefore, an integral part of a technical institution.

Fortunately, due to the enlightened policy followed by the Central Government since 1947, the present position in respect of hostels for technical students is satisfactory. The government has assisted institutions in building hostels by advancing interest-free loans repayable in easy instalments. Definite standards of hostel accommodation to be provided at an institution, the cost of the hostel, etc. have been worked out. On the basis of these standards is determined the loan to be given for the construction of hostels. For example, it has been accepted that for a residential institution, the hostel facilities should cover the entire student body and in the case of a non-residential institution, they should be for 50 per cent of the students. In the latter case, the remaining 50 per cent of the students are expected to live with their parents or guardians or find suitable lodgings elsewhere. However, if the institution is located in a large town or city where outside students are unable to find suitable lodgings, the scale of hostel accommodation is increased to meet the requirements. Similar standards have also been laid down for the type of hostel to be constructed and the various amenities to be provided.

So far, loans amounting to Rs. 4.51 crores have been sanctioned for the construction of hostels. This has risen to 6.81 crores by the end of the Second Plan period. In terms of actual hostel seats provided, it covers over 24,000 students¹. This is in addition to the hostels constructed at all higher technological institutions and other institutions of the Central Government, the entire cost of which is borne by the Centre.

¹ *Ibid* p. 75

PLANNING FOR TECHNICAL MANPOWER

And last but not the least important factor in the administration of technical education is the planning for technical manpower, since in planned economy the demand and supply of manpower is of prime importance. As early as 1937, Messrs. Abbott and Wood warned:

We are of opinion that the expansion of vocational education in India should be begun with caution and with full regard to the development of organised industry. It would be a great misfortune if a large body of men received a prolonged technical training, and on its completion found that they had no opportunities of using the knowledge they had acquired.¹

The first organized attempt made to assess the requirements for technical personnel over a given period and plan for the necessary training facilities was by the Scientific Manpower Committee in 1947-48 soon after independence. At that time, however, no five-year plans had been formulated. Nevertheless, the committee visualised a certain level of economic development to be reached by the country over a ten-year period, 1947-57 and estimated the requirements for technical personnel for industry, agriculture, transport and communication, defence and other fields. Qualitatively, it also classified the personnel required into different categories of engineers, scientists, technicians, etc. and indicated the level of their training in terms of post-graduate and specialist qualifications, degrees and diplomas. On the supply side, it carried out a comprehensive survey of the state of scientific and technical education in the country, the available training capacity of the institutions, the shortages existing in the instructional facilities and the scope of development of the institutions. The committee estimated that the requirements for technical personnel over the ten-year period 1947-57 would be of the order of 30,000 persons possessing post-graduate qualifications and first degrees in various fields of technology (including engineering) and 33,000 persons possessing diplomas. In order to meet this demand and also to improve the quality of technical education, the committee recommended a number of schemes that included development of existing institutions and establishment of new institutions. A scheme was also formulated for the institution of research scholarships for the training of research workers in science and technology and of practical training stipends to enable fresh graduates and diploma-holders to undergo a stated period of practical training in industry. Some of the schemes were accepted by the Central Government and were implemented. They were the forerunners of more vigorous efforts made in subsequent years particularly during the Second Plan period to develop technical education

Curiously enough, doubts were raised in certain quarters about the estimates of manpower requirements, prepared by the Scientific Manpower Committee. The critics said the estimates were rather on the high side and the country did not need as many as 30,000 graduate engineers and 33,000 diploma-holders over a period of ten years. According to them, the economic development of the country was not likely to proceed on such a comprehensive scale as envisaged by the committee nor as speedily. Subsequent events, however, proved that the fears were unfounded.

In 1955, i.e., at the end of the First Five-Year Plan, technical institutions in the country produced 4,020 graduates and 4,500 diploma-holders. The number of institutions increased to 65 for degree courses and to 114 for diploma courses. Their admission capacity also increased to 5,890 students for degree courses and to 10,480 for diploma courses. When the Second Five Year Plan was formulated, a target of nine additional institutions for degree courses and 21 additional polytechnics for diploma courses was proposed in the Plan that would have increased the admission capacity to 7,390 students for degree courses and to 13,080 students for diploma courses. This was the order of development visualised by the Scientific Manpower Committee. There was no noticeable unemployment among engineering graduates and diploma-holders. Quite the contrary doubts were expressed and rightly so, that the training of manpower was not being geared to the needs of the Five-Year Plan and difficulties were likely to be encountered in pressing on with the development projects. In fact, an acute shortage of personnel was reported in certain sectors. The Planning Commission, therefore, appointed an Engineering Personnel Committee in 1955 to make an estimate of the requirements for manpower for the Second Five-Year Plan, and to suggest measures to meet the shortage, if any. In its report submitted in May, 1956, the committee estimated that for the various development projects included in the Second Plan, about 26,500 graduates and 50,500 diploma-holders in engineering would be required by 1960-61. The supply from the institutions during that period would not meet the demand in full and the shortage in 1960-61 would be of the order of 1,800 graduates and 8,000 diploma-holders. According to the programme of expansion of technical education then contemplated, the admission capacity of the institutions would reach only 7,390 students for degree courses and 13,080 students for diploma courses by the end of the Plan period. The committee emphasised that unless efforts were made towards a much larger expansion of technical education then contemplated, and the gap between the demand and supply of technical manpower was bridged, the economic development of the country would not make the necessary progress. The committee recommended that the targets of technical education should be increased by 2,790 seats for degree courses and 8,220 seats for diploma courses by the end of the plan period. To

that end, a number of new engineering colleges and polytechnics should be established in the country.

In consultation with the Planning Commission, the Central Government decided in 1957 to increase immediately the training capacity of existing institutions by providing additional buildings, equipment and staff. An 'open door' policy of assisting private agencies in the establishment of technical institutions was adopted. This gave a great impetus to the development of technical education, as nine colleges and 25 polytechnics were established by private agencies. The plans of state governments were revised in stages and provision was made for the establishment of eight new colleges and 49 polytechnics. Finally, it was decided in 1958 to expand technical education on a much larger scale so as to meet the demand for technical personnel not only for the Second Plan but for the Third and subsequent plans. For that purpose a special scheme of establishment of eight large-sized regional engineering colleges and 27 additional polytechnics was formulated and steps were taken to implement it.

The targets of technical education have had to be revised thrice in the course of the current plan period. The original targets correspond to an annual admission of 7,390 students for degree courses and 13,080 students for diploma courses by 1961. The revised targets are 13,500 students for degree courses and 27,000 students for diploma courses. We are pretty near these new targets. In 1960, the admission capacity reached 13,500 students for degree courses and 25,290 students for diploma courses. When all these new schemes are implemented, our institutions will produce about 10,500 graduates and 18,000 diploma holders per year during the third plan period, which is more than double the present (1959) output of 4,500 graduates and 7,250 diploma holders. The important thing is that with this advance preparation, no serious shortage of technical personnel is anticipated for the successful execution of the Third Five-Year Plan. In fact, the supply will keep in step with the demand.

If our experience in the Second Five-Year Plan has taught us anything, it is that an integrative and statistical approach to the problem of manpower is essential and that a certain measure of audacious planning for technical education and training yields rich dividends.

INTRODUCTION

Social education in India has a colossal task to perform. For that an organisation has been set up in the country. We have to see whether the organisation is adequate for the task or not.

The adequacy of an organisation is measurable only against the task it has to do. A good indication of it is the job chart of the basic worker in the field, who in our field is the social education organiser. In the "Syllabus for the Job Training of Social Education Organisers (Men)", the job chart for social education organisers comprises community organisation, literacy work, education in citizenship, organisation of libraries, radio groups, and recreational and cultural activities. In order to comprehend the size of the task, we may pick out of these only two items for quantification, viz., literacy and community organisation. The responsibility of social education is only for adult literacy, where nearly 33.4 crores of adults have to be made literate. In so far as community organisation is concerned, the idea is to have one youth organisation and one women's organisation in each village, that is to say, nearly 11 lakhs of organisations in the rural areas alone.

What are the resources available for social education work in the country? Basically resources are of two types, personnel and finance. Regarding personnel, we had in 1959 about 40,000 literacy teachers (only part-time), 3,918 social education organisers (of whom 1,441 were women), about 500 librarians and a sprinkling of officers in the higher levels. In the matter of finance a sum of about Rs. 5 crores was provided in the education budgets for social education in the Second Five-Year Plan for the Centre and states. For every Community Development Block there was a provision of Rs. 70,000 for Stage I blocks and Rs. 50,000 for Stage II blocks, each stage lasting for five years. This provision appears in Community Development budgets. Not all of this provision is, however, spent on social education purposes. A similar provision for social education in the education and community development budgets has been repeated for the Third Five-Year Plan.

Besides, there will be personnel and funds for social education under non-official organisations, more of personnel than funds, because there is hardly any voluntary organisation in the field of social education which does not depend heavily on government

aid. The personnel, too, though it would have some of the most devoted workers in the field, would hardly exceed a few hundred, mostly in the field of public libraries.

Before examining social education organisation in some detail, it should be mentioned here that, except for a few cities, organised social education work is confined only to rural areas, i.e., to about 75 per cent of our population—that too in theory, because the community development organisation in which the social education structure is embedded does not as yet reach the entire rural areas in the country. The best type of organised social education work is being done in the cities, but that is because there is a greater need for literacy in the cities and not because there is an organisation to meet the felt need. In our present study, therefore, we will almost forget the cities.

Social education organisation functions at the village (or *panchayat*), the block, the district, the state and the national levels. We shall examine each of these levels.

THE VILLAGE LEVEL

The community development organisation of which the social education organisation is an integral part, covered in 1959 (September) a population of 18 crores in 3.6 lakh villages. The most important forms of social education organisation at the lowest level or the village are literacy classes, community centres, libraries and youth and women's associations. Between them, the 3.6 lakhs villages had about 29,000 literacy classes, 1,09,000 community centres, 63,200 libraries, 1,26,500 youth clubs with 14,71,000 members and 30,400 women's *samitis* with 4,95,000 members.

It will thus be seen that there is a vast distance between the requirements and actualities of social education set-up in the villages. The distance expands in magnitude as we examine the working of each of the four types of organisations we have selected.

Take for example, the literacy classes. According to the Sixth Evaluation Report "the contribution to literacy made by the adult literacy centres would be 3 per cent of the total population in the blocks."¹ Of these, only 57 per cent received any lasting benefit.² The figure, it should be remembered, is a little too generous to bear the test of evidence. For, literacy is a skill which can be kept alive only by constant exercise. And as the Report itself says "about 10 per cent of the respondents in the blocks reported using the library and an equal percentage reported that they had been reading newspapers during the last six months,"³ so that the lasting benefit from literacy classes is actually derived

¹ Government of India. *The Sixth Evaluation Report on Working of Community Development - - and N.E.S. Blocks*. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1959. p. 83.

² *Ibid.*, p. 86.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 85-86.

**ORGANISATION
OF
SOCIAL
EDUCATION
(1959)**

INDIA

- 1 MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
- 2 MINISTRY OF COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT AND CO-OPERATION

A STATE

UNDER
A SOCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER

A DISTRICT

UNDER
A DISTRICT SOCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER

**BLOCKS
(3,000)**

3,918 SOCIAL EDUCATION ORGANISERS

VILLAGES

3,60,000... VILLAGES

29,000... LITERACY
CLASSES

1,09,000... COMMUNITY
CENTRES

63,000 ... LIBRARIES

1,26,000... YOUTH
CLUBS

30,400... MAHILA
SAMITIS

CHART 17

only by 0.3 per cent of the population of the blocks. And if we remember that literacy effort in the blocks is greater than that in the non-block areas and that the population is growing at a disconcerting rate, we should hardly be surprised if we learn that the size of the illiterate population in India is swelling like a bacterial culture in a favourable medium.

We will now take community centres. Apart from the fact that not even a third of the villages covered by the development blocks have community centres, the activities in these centres are none too exciting. Concerning these centres, the Sixth Evaluation Report says

The average attendance is poor in all programmes including those like the cultural and the radio programmes, at which everybody can participate. The libraries and the reading rooms can obviously attract only the literate sections of the village population. But the attendance at these institutions considered in relation to the literate persons only in the village is also very small. The same is true of group discussions and meetings.¹

We need not be surprised at an even more depressing story of libraries. It is, however, worth dwelling a little while on the youth and women's associations, because of the importance which social education attaches to organisations of the people. Anyone who has seen the working of these organisations will bear out that there is very little of educational content in their activities. And after all as the statistics show, they hardly meet three to five times a year on an average.

The working of the social education organisation at the village level would mainly depend on the available workers at that level, and the training and guidance available for them. The primary school teacher is mostly responsible for running the literacy classes. Honourable exceptions apart, it is notorious that the primary school teacher seldom puts his best in this work. For one thing, he has little training for the work, he has even less guidance, and least of all he has any but the meagrest interest in the work. For, whatever we may say on the importance of the trinity of the school, the co-operative and the *panchayat* in the community development work, the school teacher has stood apart from its main current. It may be noted that the libraries at the village level are also supposed to be the responsibility of the village. And that is the reason why no more need be said of them here.

The community centres and the associations of youth and women derive their personnel from the villagers interested in their programmes. On the basis of available studies

¹ *Ibid*, p. 89.

it is clear that the circle is confined to high caste people who may be wholly or partially literate. There is perhaps some sort of intermittent guidance available to them from the social education organiser. There are no training facilities for them. Though the Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation organises thousands of training camps for *gram sahayaks* — 11 lakhs of *gram sahayaks* were trained in 21,000 of these camps in 1958-59 — social education work is not the favoured subject in these camps.

THE BLOCK LEVEL

We now come to the second, the block level organisation. The pivot of this organisation is the pair of social education organisers in a block. In the 2,708 blocks out of nearly 3,000 which reported in 1959, there were 3,918 social education organisers, including 1,441 lady S.E.O.s. We have already mentioned the main features of the job chart of a social education organiser.

The work of a social education organiser will depend on his educational calibre, his training, the set-up in which he works and the clarity of his role in it, his load of work and the material means available to him to carry on his work. At present his job chart is as follows:

1. To stimulate the process of community organisation.
 - (1) by formation of groups such as women's groups, youth organisations, occupation interest groups, farmers clubs and other groups so that the villagers can participate more effectively in the community development programme,
 - (2) by organising community centres; and
 - (3) by utilising the existing leadership and stimulating and developing it through training of village people
2. To organise.
 - (1) literacy campaigns, literacy classes and post-literacy work;
 - (2) training of teachers for literacy and post-literacy work;
 - (3) social education classes for health education and education in citizenship;
 - (4) follow-up activities;
 - (5) rural libraries and reading rooms; and
 - (6) radio listening groups,
 and to utilise these organisations in the community for the promotion of the above activities.
3. To assist in communication of ideas to the people through the use of various audio-visual-aids for an effective propagation of the programme of community development among villagers.

4. To organise and encourage recreational and cultural activities such as:
 - (1) Folk dances, dramas, *kathas*, *kirtans*, *bhajans*, etc.
 - (2) Exhibitions and *melas*; and
 - (3) physical activities like games, sports and *akharas*.
5. To perform administrative duties so far as they relate to the social education programme.
6. In the performance of the above jobs, the social education organiser will work with existing organisations like the *panchayat*, the schools, the cooperative societies, etc., with a view to promoting the programme of social education through them and helping in their growth.

With regard to educational standards, it is expected that the social education organiser will be a graduate. However, this qualification is not always respected. Especially in the case of women, no effort is made to stick to this qualification which has so often been named as an essential qualification by a number of deliberative bodies. It will easily be seen that less than a graduate will hardly be able to do justice to this job chart.

A social education organiser, after his appointment, is brought, firstly, for a short course in an orientation training centre and later to one of the 13 social education organisers' training centres for a training period of five months. The training comprises lectures in the practical work at the centre and concurrent field-work. The theoretical work is divided into 10 groups as follows:

No. 1	Rural Communities and their characteristics—The Indian Rural community	40	hours
No. 2	Dynamics of Human Behaviour	40	„
No. 3	Method of Working with people	40	„
No. 4	The <i>panchayat</i> , the school and the cooperative as basic institutions of the community and the role of the voluntary organisations	20	„
No. 5	Leadership Training	25	„
No. 6	Youth Welfare	25	„
No. 7	Social Education—The New Concept	100	„
No. 8	Methods and Materials of Social Education		
No. 9	Programme of Social Education		
No. 10	Administration of Social Education Programme	20	„
Total		310	hours

The lady S.E.O.'s syllabus is slanted in the direction of work with women and children.

After training, the S.E.O. comes back to his block, where he works as a member of a team of about 10 specialists, with the block development officer as the head of the team. The S.E.O. has, therefore, to work out team programmes as well as his own programmes. An essential condition of the success of the S.E.O.'s work is the understanding, which the block development officer has of his work. This officer is almost invariably derived from a department other than education and therefore his understanding of the educational rôle of the S.E.O. is submerged in his anxiety to put him to work where he will be of "real" use—"real use" being measured according to his own foot-rule. Recently, as we shall see, the whole work of the S.E.O. has been confused, assailed, reviled and vitiated by the unfortunate controversy at the upper levels regarding his rôle. Today, he is the problem man in the block development team.

The Sixth Evaluation Report has the following to say on the load of S.E.O.'s work: "According to scheme, two S.E.O.s are expected to look after a whole block, with an average of 299 square miles, and containing 115 villages and 77 thousand persons. This, of course, is a requirement which it is humanly impossible to fulfil."¹ Some other handicaps in his work mentioned in the Report are the unequal division of work between the man and the woman S.E.O. and his too frequent transfers.

Of the approximately 3,000 blocks, in 1959, nearly 2,000 were Stage I blocks and about 1,000 Stage II blocks. The five-yearly provision for social education in the two stages is Rs. 70,000 and Rs. 50,000 respectively. Out of this, some amount has been reserved for women's and children's programmes and the rest is divided between literacy, libraries, youth clubs, etc. A conspicuous hiatus in this allocation is a provision for training teachers for literacy work and youths and other leaders for various social education activities at the village level.

The social education organisers are not too well-served with literature and teaching aids. As we shall see, publication of literature—for workers in the field of social education as well as literature for neo-literates—is a weak spot of state governments' social education programmes. As a result, the S.E.O. in his turn cannot properly feed the villages in his locality with the wall news-sheets and easy-to-read literature, recognised as essential to a process of adult education.

At the Block level, there is also a block development committee or *panchayat samiti* as an advisory body. Each such committee will have a sub-committee for social education.

The position of the S.E.O. in the development team is such that unless he has firm links with the education department he is likely to be swamped by overwhelming non-

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 77.

educational demands on his time and talent. Unfortunately, even so obvious a requirement has now become a subject of dispute and today we find him being fitted in various patterns of administration with his links, may be, to a *panchayat* department or a social welfare department or a development department.

However, the accepted pattern, or let us say, the pattern recommended by the Indian Ministry of Education and endorsed and backed by the Development Commissioners' Conference is that the S.E.O. should have his home in the education department through the district social education officer.

THE DISTRICT LEVEL

The District Social Education Officer, in consultation with the block development officers, is responsible for drawing up the annual programme of work of the S.E.O.s in his district and of guiding the S.E.O.s in the technical aspects of their work. To help them to perform his duties competently, the National Fundamental Education Centre set up by the Ministry of Education has instituted a five-months' course for District Social Education Officers.

It was intended at the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan that by the end of it all the 320 and odd districts in India will have their District Social Education Officers. However, so far only 99 D.S.E.O.s have been appointed, some of whom have been trained at the National Fundamental Education Centre.

Like the S.E.O.s the D.S.E.O.s are also not well-served with literature and teaching aids. For example, every D.S.E.O. should have a mobile cine-van to help the S.E.O.s in their work by reinforcing it with the necessary visual aids, which would be prepared by local artists. But these are not available.

Another very important institution at the district level, which is of significance to social education work, is the district library. At present, nearly 131 districts in India have their district libraries. The working of these libraries, of course, leaves much (if not everything) to be desired. A district library, it may be mentioned, is expected to extend its services through the block libraries, to the village or the *panchayat* level, but only a few libraries do this and those which do this spread the butter too thin.

The district development committees (or the *zilla parishads*) will represent the non-official view in the work of the district development officers, including the D.S.E.O. and the district librarian. Their development, however, is yet in an embryonic stage, at least so far as social education work is concerned.

STATE LEVEL — THE WEAKEST LINK

The most important level and withal the weakest link in the chain of social education organisation in the country is the fourth, the state level. Ideally, its functions should be:

1. to provide the strongest unit of administration and advisory personnel of social education in the state;
2. to provide an adequate library service in the state;
3. to have an adequate programme of training different types of social education workers in the state; and
4. to provide supporting services such as literature and audio-visual aids.

The state governments, with one or two exceptions, have not so far been able to discharge effectively their responsibilities in the entire field of social education. No doubt almost every state has an officer in charge of social education work in the area, but his chains have been his birthright, as it were. In the first place, more often than not, he is burdened by other work. But most of all, he is not provided with the finance and facilities for his work. He is neither assisted by any specialist nor by agencies for the production of literature and audio-visual aids for workers and beneficiaries of social education. He is also not required to organise any training programmes.

The library set-up in all but a few states leaves a lot to be desired. Though almost every state government has a state central library, its functional value has not made itself sufficiently felt. The same applies to the skeleton public libraries in the many states that have them. Only the states of Madras and Andhra have established public library systems based on a library legislation. However, even in the districts which have done very well in putting up libraries under the legislation hardly one-third of the population has been covered.

This state of affairs may be attributed to lack of finance. Heaven knows how scanty are the funds, but it is worthwhile to glance at Table 39. It gives an idea of how the available and allotted finance, scanty as it is, has been utilised:

TABLE 39

Social Education and Finance, 1956-61

(in lakhs of rupees)

	Plan Provision	Expendi- ture during 1956-59	Proposed Expendi- ture for 1959-61	Total
Development of Libraries.....	243.68	97.65	100.79	198.44
Appointment of D.S.E.O s.....	39.96	10.78	16.84	27.62
Production of Literature	25.46	3.57	4.29	7.86
Miscellaneous	99.72	13.00	17.97	30.97
Total:	408.82	125.00	139.89	264.89

The figures speak for themselves. On the basis of these figures and the pace of activity they suggest, it would not be far wrong to anticipate that out of the total provision of Rs. 5 crores in the Second Five-Year Plan, the state governments will have hardly utilized Rs. 2.1 crores. It is to be noted in this connection that no state has any active advisory body on social education.

THE NATIONAL LEVEL

We now come to the fifth, the all-India, level of social education organisation. Its most distinguishing mark is its dyarchial structure, for the responsibility of social education work is divided between two ministries at the Centre—the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community Development & Co-operation. The latter ministry is directly responsible for: (a) social education work in community development blocks, and (b) the administration of social education organisers' training centres. It is advised in this work by the annual conferences of development commissioners and the annual conferences of directors of social education organisers' training centres. There is a special officer for social education in the Ministry.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the rest of the central activities in the field. Specifically, it is responsible for.

1. pilot projects in the field of social education and libraries;
2. training the higher level personnel of social education and libraries;
3. research;
4. co-ordination of state governments' social education programmes;

5. production of literature for workers and the new reading public; and
6. training of personnel and production of aids in the fields of audio-visual education.

The Social Education Unit in the Ministry is in charge of an assistant educational adviser assisted by a special officer for literature. It consists of two sections, one dealing with literature for neo-literates and the new reading public, and, the second, with all other matters relating to social education that fall within the purview of the Ministry. The Unit has been located in various divisions at various times. At present it is in the Social Education and Social Welfare Division which is under the charge of an officer of the level of a deputy secretary.

The Ministry of Education is advised in its social education work mainly by the Central Advisory Board of Education and *ad hoc* committees it may set up for any specific purpose within the field, e.g., the committee set up to frame a model library legislation for guidance to state governments.

There is no doubt that a large part of the work of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting is also of vital educational importance for adults, e.g., the radio broadcasts, production of documentaries and news reels, distribution of community radio sets and production of literature. However, it is still valid to speak of a dyarchy rather than a triarchy, because the work of the Ministry of Information & Broadcasting does not affect social education work in the field, whereas the division of work between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation does affect it vitally.

The two ministries attempt to co-ordinate their social education work by means of a joint committee. Recently, the committee has been split up into two levels—Ministers' level and Officers' level. The functioning of the new two tier arrangement has yet to be tested. The single joint committee device, however, broke down under the strain of differences between the two ministries on the question of administration of social education at the Centre and the allied question of the control of S.E.O.T. centres. After a few attempts to clear the differences, the Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation shifted to a stand which imported a drastic recasting of the role of an S.E.O. The net result of this was that the Ministry of Community Development were to keep S.E.O.s for their work, which is the organisation of community, i.e., village groups, such as youth and women's organisations, and the Ministry of Education were to manage their part of the work, namely, adult education. This bifurcation was far from wholesome and the differences that arose between the two ministries as a consequence were

not in the interest of the campaign for widespread social education. At one time efforts were made by the Planning Commission to resolve the differences and there was even the hint of a solution. But as it turned out, unfortunately, it proved to be a false dawn. The repercussions that followed on the social education structure in the country were, as can easily be imagined, very unfortunate. The position of the S.E.O.s in the Development Team continues to be confused, undefined and invidious.

It is vital to the health of social education organisation in India that the differences within the top level of the organisation should be cleared. It can only be done by recognising in clear terms that social education is adult education. There is no doubt that community organisation is a vital part of the concept of social education, but community organisation enters in the concept as a potent educational technique. In this connection, we cannot do better than quote from the "Report of a Community Development Evaluation Mission in India" Apropos the subject of the functions of S.E.O., the Mission says:

To regard them (the S.E.O.s) primarily as 'organisers' is not using them to their full capacity and is also a difficult and potentially dangerous function to assign to anyone of their standing and education. To begin with, it is a waste of time and personnel to 'organise village groups' without a very clear idea of what the groups are for; what activities they are likely, or are intended, to take up; and how such new groups coalesce with, differ from, or present challenges to, existing groups in the villages. Furthermore, the social education organizers have responsibility for, approximately, 100 villages in a block and cannot make extended stays in any one particular village to organise groups there.

A skilled appraisal of the need for new groups in villages to carry out new developmental or social activities is far beyond the capacity of the majority of social education organisers. Their ineffective efforts at group activities are frustrating to themselves and do not earn the esteem and confidence of other block officials.¹

Stating the assumption behind the recommendation, the Mission concludes "that the real job of the social education organizer is adult education, using that concept in a wide and comprehensive sense. To this end—and everyone would agree that the progress of adult education is vital to the new concept of people's participation—the differences of opinion at the state and central levels about which department of the government is responsible for adult education should be finally resolved, and the social education organizer should be charged with specific responsibilities in adult education in rural areas. The

¹ United Nations. *Report of a Community Development Evaluation Mission in India*. Government of India, Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation, 1959. pp. 55-56.

other technical officers on the block staff are also responsible for adult education in their own fields of agriculture, co-operation, rural industries, etc., but there is still an important and relatively untouched field for the social education organizer to work in.”¹

Once the confusion at the Centre is cleared and co-ordination takes the place of division of responsibilities tending to create exclusivism, it will be easy to clear the confusion at the state level. When that happens a new wave of life will spread in the organism of social education in the country. Then, even with its handicaps arising out of the soft-peddling of the needs of adult education by planning authorities, it will achieve much more in the span of *one* plan than it has been able to do in *two*.

FINANCE

We have already mentioned about the funds available for social education. It is interesting to consider the way they are allowed in the beginning of a plan period. The central and state governments frame the schemes of education including social education to be implemented in the plan. These always exceed the funds which the Planning Commission is prepared to place at the disposal of the Centre and the states for educational development. The amount to be allotted for education both at the Centre and the states is fixed on considerations other than educational and the Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments are asked to manage within this ceiling, subject to broad priorities. In the very nature of things the pressure of funds for elementary, secondary and university education is so strong and irresistible that it is a wonder how something at all is left for social education.

The following are the funds provided for social education in the Third Five-Year Plan for state governments:

¹ *Lec. cit.*

TABLE 40

Statement Showing Outlay on "Social Education Schemes" Included in the Finalised Third Five-Year Plans of States and Union Territories—Centrally-Aided Schemes.

Sr. No.	State/Union Administration	Social Education Schemes Outlay for Third F.Y.P. (1961-66)
	STATES	(Rupees in lakhs)
1.	Andhra Pradesh	15.00
2.	Assam	20.00
3.	Bihar	41.90
4.	Gujarat	25.00
5.	Jammu & Kashmir	5.20
6.	Kerala	10.50
7.	Madhya Pradesh	37.00
8.	Madras	70.00
9.	Maharashtra	3.00
10.	Mysore	2.90
11.	Orissa	28.40
12.	Punjab	2.22
13.	Rajasthan ..	18.85
14.	Uttar Pradesh .. .	42.79
15.	West Bengal	168.95
	Total	491.71
	UNION TERRITORIES	
1.	Andaman & Nicobar Islands	1.00
2.	Delhi	18.95
3.	Himachal Pradesh ..	3.00
4.	L.M. & A.	0.20
5.	N.H.T.A.	0.50
6.	N.E.F.A.	—
7.	N.H.T.A.	0.32
8.	Pondicherry	2.86
9.	Tripura	4.18
	Total	31.01
	Grand Total	522.72

CONCLUSION

DYARCHY.—It is clear from the brief description given above of the social education organisation in India that it violates some of the principles of 'good administration. Social education, though one in concept, is divided in two ministries at the Centre. Again in many of the states, the social education organiser who is the key-man in the field has in many cases no department which would own him. He suffers, at least in morale, for being under two masters—the district social education officer and the block development officer. Where there is no district social education officer and the block development officer is his sole boss, the social education organiser may be used by the block development officer as his assistant for all work, which could mean all work except social education work. Cases have been known of the social education organiser distributing loans to agriculturists! All this has sometimes resulted in denegrating the social education organiser and his role in the eyes of many, especially officials.

In educational circles three propositions are now being mooted, as yet only in a provisional form: (1) Social education along with libraries should form a department, preferably a separate department, but if it cannot be a separate department then it should be an autonomous unit under the education departments in the states; (2) Social education, and especially its most important aspect of literacy, has lost much and gained little by integrating this organisation with community development; (3) the Ministry of Community Development has its legitimate function only in the coordination of development work of the various departments in the states and at the Centre. In its present form it is overstepping its function and treading on the toes of education and agriculture departments at the Centre and in the states.

DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALIZATION.—A recent development that has come about in the administration of some states and promises well to be introduced gradually in other states—a development that is bound to affect social education though it cannot just now be said how—is also worthy of notice. It is known as democratic decentralisation and owes its origin to the report of a committee chairmanned by an eminent thinker in the Congress organization, the ruling party in the country. The report recommended a three tier people's organisation to take charge of development work at three levels. At the lowest level there will be *panchayats*, statutory bodies governing populations of about 1,500. Then, the representatives of the *panchayats* within a block will form a *panchayat samiti*, a block development committee, with a non-official as its chairman. The block team headed by the block development officer mentioned earlier will work under the direction of the chairman of the *panchayat samiti*. Finally, there will be the *zila parishad* or the district

development council, composed of representatives of *panchayat samitis* and also with a non-official elected chairman. The *zila parishads* will control and direct development work in their districts and the district level officers of various departments, including the district collector, who was almost, *ex-officio*, the head of district level officers' team, will work under the direction of the chairman of the *zila parishad*, though the state governments have hesitated in giving this chairman as wide powers as they have given to the chairman at the block level. The district staff, therefore, has somewhat greater independence than the block level staff of these people's organisations.

A large body of political workers have welcomed this bold step in taking democracy to the people. Some officials too have a benevolent attitude to this move. But there are many officials and also many social thinkers who have raised the following types of objections without as yet, of course, answering them: Will the new bodies not become hotbeds of politics? Will they have enough funds to make their decision have a significant impact on the people, or else, will they not become frustrated and embittered by the shortage of funds? Will they have the wisdom to guide development work in their areas with objectivity, knowledge and sagacity? Will they command the loyalties of the officers and will they not misuse the officers? Will the government employees work for the new bodies as they worked for the government?

Social educationists too are asking whether social education work will prosper or suffer under non-official domination. It may be noted that non-official bodies form an important part of an organisation. At the *panchayat* and the block and the district levels, we have noticed the very important places are filled by the various non-official bodies in the states of Rajasthan and Andhra. In other states also non-official bodies at the three levels are there though with only advisory powers. Most of these bodies have sub-committees for education, which also look after social education. Many states, such as Maharashtra and Gujarat have advisory bodies for social education. The two states of Madras and Andhra, where there is a library legislation, have advisory library councils at state levels. At the Centre, as we have already mentioned, the Ministry of Education is advised in all educational matters, including social education, by the Central Advisory Board of Education. The Board has a standing committee for social education. The Ministry of Development and Cooperation often asks for the advice of state development commissioners at their annual conferences on all matters relating to development work, including social education. It also calls every year a conference of directors of the 13 centres where social education organisers are trained in five-month courses, on matters concerning the training of this personnel. It is, however, regrettable to note that no corps

of consultants and specialists in the field of social education has yet come into being in India.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS. — One important hiatus in the organisation of social education is the paucity of voluntary organisations in the field. At the all-India level there is the Indian Adult Education Association which is doing excellent work and has deservedly won international reputation for itself. But there is hardly any state with a state adult education association, except, of course, the internationally known Mysore State Adult Education Council. The Indian Adult Education Association is handicapped by its lack of financial resources in opening branches in the states. There are, however, many local voluntary organisations carrying on some sort of social education work, mostly literacy work, in their areas. Most of them depend on state governments for eking out their existence. All state governments give grants to voluntary organisations in the field of social education but the grants are few and inadequate. Formerly, many prominent organisations received grants from the Ministry of Education, but from about 1958-59 the Ministry of Education, too, has restricted its role in this respect.

The most prominent of the local associations is the Bombay City Social Education Committee with a record of work, which many local associations in parts of the advanced world would be proud of imitate.

The library field is better served. There is the Indian Library Association with its head office in Calcutta. Eight or nine of the states have their state library associations and some states have library associations even below this level. Also, there are numerous voluntary organisations of local importance in various parts of the country, and especially in Bihar and West Bengal, which are giving some sort of library service to their localities. Some of them are also doing adult education work. These local associations also stand as beggars at state government doors for alms to keep themselves barely alive. Thus, on the whole, the voluntary sector of social education organisation in the country is a cripple and, by and large, the work is carried out only by official agencies and workers who are government employees.

This, of course, leads to lop-sided development of social education in many ways. We may mention the dearth of adult schools, evening classes and vocational courses in the country. Again, the official agency of social education being tied so closely to community development and the community development effort being concentrated in rural areas, there has been all but a total neglect of social education in urban and industrial areas, the two areas considered most rewarding for adult education work. Whatever work is done there, is done by starving and emaciated voluntary organisations

and except in one or two places, like Bombay, there is hardly anything to be noted. Recently, the Government of India has set up a Workers' Social Education Institute at Indore, an industrial area, with a promise to set up more institutes of this type in the Third Five-Year Plan.

SPECIAL CLASSES. — Social education work among women also is lagging behind. The lady social education organisers in the development blocks have, by the very nature of the case, to mix a large dose of social welfare work in their jobs. The result is that neither the social education organiser nor the women in the villages have much time or inclination for really educational work.

To count out the last bead of our deficiencies, social education work is also at a low ebb among the backward sections of the nation. The Government of India is doing praiseworthy work for uplifting these sections economically and educationally, but it is doing very little to carry library and other adult education services to them, except what they get by their inclusion in the development blocks. For backward classes, of course, that is much less than needs to be done.

CONCLUSION. — On the whole we see that leaving aside its organisational tangles the social education organisation in India is too inadequate for the colossal tasks it faces. It is stunted in size and destitute in funds. There is, however, no doubt that given a "good weather" it has potentialities of development in it. This is proved by the fact that in spite of the organisational and other handicaps some excellent work has been done in this field in several development blocks.

BACKGROUND

A brief survey of the government policy for financing education in this country, since the beginning of the XIX Century has been given in the introductory chapter of this book.¹ It shows a close relationship between educational progress and the pattern of administration which financed it. The history of education in India is full of instances wherein the administrative arrangements for financing education were primarily responsible for progress or retardation of education. For instance, the East India Company was a commercial concern till 1833 and was mainly interested in profits. In the beginning, therefore, it was not at all interested in the education of the Indian people. But as soon as it assumed ruling powers it was compelled within less than a hundred years of its existence to undertake some educational activities for administrative reasons and to accept officially the responsibility of education in 1813.

Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company became a political authority ruling over India on behalf of the British Parliament. This change in its character was immediately reflected in education which began to receive greater attention at its hands and larger grants from the exchequer. This attitude was also influenced by contemporary developments in England where a tide of liberalism had swept over English life and the first grant to education was sanctioned by the Parliament in 1833. Consequently the controversies of Indian education were settled and a new system was introduced which was finalised by the Despatch of 1854. This continuous interest in education led to a considerable increase in total educational expenditure, which had reached the figure of Rs. 21.64 lakhs in 1857.

At this juncture when the Company had undertaken an ambitious programme of educational expansion, the Governance of India was transferred from it to the Crown. But the British Parliament continued the educational policy laid down in the Despatch of 1854 and the expenditure on education continued to increase rapidly till it reached Rs. 65.71 lakhs in 1870-71. Though the increased educational activity and expenditure during this period was a welcome contrast to the apathy and niggardliness of the earlier period, yet it should be noted that the Government of India was still preoccupied with

¹ *Supra*, pp. 3-4.

conquests and consolidation, defence and law, and order. The imperial needs like railways and roads received priority over education so that the amount available to education was only 1.3 per cent of total revenue in 1870-71.

The causes for this low expenditure on education were inherent in the pattern of administration. An alien government had the utilitarian motive of securing low paid personnel for the bureaucracy and feared to raise its revenue by proper taxation lest it should annoy the Indian people. On top of it was the extremely wasteful centralization of administration. The provincial governments were glorified district boards without any independent status which led to disastrous financial results. The provinces had no incentive to collect more taxes or to spend less because the allotments were made by the Centre and the unspent balances lapsed to it at the end of the year. They did not economise because all economies led to a cut in the allotment for the next year. Hence the tendency to earn less and spend more was encouraged so that the central government had large and almost continuous deficits in its budgets. Under such circumstances it was impossible to expect larger grants from government funds or greater activity of education departments.

The much desired reform came in 1870 by Lord Mayo's decentralization of administration and finances. Specific revenues and central grants were assigned to the provincial governments, which were given a fairly large measure of financial autonomy. They were expected to meet the expenditure of certain departments like education from these resources in the best way they could. It was expected that the provinces under new administrative set-up would make larger grants to education than what had been possible under centralization and the efficiency of education departments would increase as they would no longer be required to refer even small details to the central government. The reform was sound in theory as far as education was concerned but in practice it turned out to be a retrograde step. Provincial education was deprived of the central assistance, and famines and epidemics brought retrenchment in education. The government educational expenditure rose from Rs. 65.71 lakhs in 1870-71 to Rs. 72.91 lakhs in 1881-82 and to only Rs. 103.91 lakhs in 1901-02. The increase works out at Rs. 1.27 lakhs per year during three decades. This was a very poor increase indeed! The percentage of provincial expenditure on education to the total budget decreased from 1.98 in 1881-82 to .9 in 1901-02.

The Indian Education Commission of 1882 recommended that primary education should be made the responsibility of local bodies hoping that mass education would progress by being transferred it to an administration which was controlled by Indians themselves.

But the later history showed that the meagre resources of the local bodies belied that hope. They avoided to do the little that they could by taking advantage of the technical defect in law which made their contributions permissive and not obligatory. The district and municipal boards spent on education 15.05 per cent and 2.03 per cent respectively of their total revenues in 1881-82. Of their total educational expenditure the district boards spent 75 per cent and municipal boards 60.2 per cent on primary education in 1881-82. The meagre finance of the local bodies and their low proportional allotments to primary education were a great hindrance to the cause of compulsory and free primary education.

By the turn of the century, the period of scarcity and deficit budgets was over and a period of financial boom ushered in. The reform of the tax-structure increased the surpluses in the central budget so that the government had plenty of money for developmental works. Fortunately an intelligent though imperialist viceroy, Lord Curzon who had great interest in education, appeared on the scene at that time. His basic interest in education was strengthened by political considerations, because education had by now acquired a political significance. Therefore, after catering to the imperialist needs of the army and the administration, he devoted a part of the surpluses to education. At his instance, the central government sanctioned large recurring grants to education. In a federal type of country like India it was absolutely necessary that the Centre gave grants to education and luckily the practice initiated by Lord Curzon was kept up till 1921. The satisfactory adjustment of financial relations between the Centre and the provinces as well as the prevailing boom period greatly improved the provincial governments' allotments to education. Thus the total expenditure on education from government funds rose from Rs. 104 lakhs in 1901-02 to Rs. 902 lakhs in 1921-22 showing an increase of Rs. 39.0 lakhs annually during the first two decades of the twentieth century. The government funds shared 49.2 per cent of the total educational expenditure in 1921-22 as against only 25.9 per cent in 1901-02.¹

The contribution from the local bodies, particularly municipalities, also increased during the period partly because they were compelled to share their legitimate burden and partly because of the increase of urban population due to the war. The total expenditure from local funds in 1921-22 was Rs. 247 lakhs as against Rs. 74.25 lakhs in 1901-02 and Rs. 16.84 lakhs in 1870-71.

Next change in administration came in 1921 on account of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms. The introduction of dyarchy in the provinces raised the hope that the Indian ministers responsible to their legislatures and freed from the Centre's control would be able

¹ A. Misra. *Financing Education in India*. Allahabad, Garga and Brothers, 1959. pp. 44-48.

to develop education considerably, but the financial arrangements made under this system were not conducive to increased educational expenditure. The provinces had to make huge grants to the Centre in the beginning and finance was a reserved subject in which the Indian ministers had very little say in deciding priorities or raising new taxes. The central grants to education were totally stopped. To make the situation worse, came the retrenchment firstly due to the after-effects of the First World War and secondly in 1930 due to the world economic depression which dragged on till 1937. The schemes of educational expansion had to be shelved and the existing facilities were retrenched considerably. Therefore, there was a comparative fall in government allotment and total expenditure on education during the period 1921-37. The government expenditure increased from Rs. 902 lakhs in 1921-22 to Rs. 1,236 lakhs in 1936-37 showing a total increase of Rs. 334 lakhs or about Rs. 22 lakhs per annum. The government's share in total educational expenditure fell from 49.2 per cent in 1921-22 to 44.1 per cent in 1936-37. As far as the government was concerned the educational expenditure was greatly reduced inspite of the Indian ministers being at the helm of affairs, but perhaps their presence prevented the fall from being still steeper. Fortunately, the fall in state expenditure was compensated to some extent by contributions from other sources namely local funds, fees, endowments and donations. While government funds registered an increase of Rs. 334 lakhs only, all other sources put together showed an increase of Rs. 634 lakhs almost the double of the former increase during the period. But even this combined increase could raise the total expenditure on education by Rs. 64 lakhs per annum during 1901-21.

The last change in the administrative set-up of the British rule in India was ushered in by the Government of India Act of 1935. Provincial autonomy was introduced in 1937. In the new provincial regime, finance too came to be controlled by Indian ministers and, therefore, larger funds could be assigned to education without any administrative hindrance. The general financial position improved after the economic depression and the Centre too assumed a helpful attitude. With the assumption of office by the Congress ministers, once more hopes were raised. They began well by restoring all cuts in education, and launching schemes of compulsory primary education and adult literacy. But before the work could go into full swing, the Second World War started and the Congress ministers resigned in 1939. The care-taker government tried to keep the *status quo* but soon it became beyond their means to continue the schemes according to the original programme. Government expenditure on education increased from Rs. 1,236 lakhs in 1936-37 to Rs. 2,596 lakhs in 1946-47 showing an increase of Rs. 1,360 lakhs in a decade or Rs. 136 lakhs per annum. The total expenditure on education increased by Rs. 296 lakhs per year. These rates of increase per annum were the highest ever recorded during the British rule.

in India. But all this increase could not bring about expansion of education because of the rise in expenditure due to the high cost of living in consequence of the War.¹

Finally, a curtain fell on the British rule in India in 1947 and a Democratic Republic was established in the country. A democracy lays stress on education but the colossal problems arising out of partition and newly won independence did not allow the Indian leaders to spend as much on education as they would have desired. The states were in charge of education but the Centre actively helped in coordinating and financing the schemes originated by the latter.

SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

In the pre-British period, the main sources of educational finance were endowments, donations and gifts. Financial aid to education had no statutory basis but depended mostly on the sweet will of the ruler. The East India Company in the beginning was reluctant to undertake any financial responsibility. But the agitation of the people in India and England resulted in the insertion in the Charter Act of 1813 of a clause numbered 43 which contained the first legislative admission of the right of education in India to share public revenues. One lakh of rupees granted that year were increased to ten lakhs after twenty years. The amount showed little variation till 1854 in which year the Educational Despatch organised the system of education in India.² The demand for education increased during the period 1833 to 1870 particularly after Wood's Despatch and to meet the demand it became necessary to find new sources of financing education. Therefore, this period saw the evolution of new sources to meet the increasing demand. Since 1854 the government subvention to education increased steadily—from Rs. 21.6 lakhs in 1856-57 to Rs. 70.3 lakhs in 1870-71. But this increase was hardly proportional to the demand. To meet the situation, two steps were taken: one was to adopt such educational policies only as would be practicable within the funds available and the other was to secure additional financial resources. Imposition of fees in schools served both purposes. It restricted the number of persons aspiring to receive education and it also increased the finance.

Thus tuition fees began to be charged in all institutions and gradually became an important source of school revenue. The Acts incorporating the three universities (Calcutta, Bombay and Madras) in 1857 provided for other types of fees also, namely fees for conferring degree and fee for admission to the universities. As education expanded and more facilities began to be provided, other fees like medical, refreshment, games, examination, building fees, etc. came to be charged from the students. The income from fees has been

¹ *Ibid.* pp. 49-50.

² *Supra.* pp. 7-8.

very stable and a major source of educational expenditure in India. Many private institutions are being mainly supported by fee-receipts. The proportional contribution from fees was 6.6 per cent of total educational expenditure in 1870-71, 31.6 per cent in 1901-02, 20.7 per cent in 1921-22, 25.3 per cent in 1936-37, 26.4 per cent in 1946-47 and 20 per cent in 1956-57. The fees have contributed from one-fifth to one-third of the total educational expenditure.¹

The lack of funds for education in the early days led to the evolution of another source of educational finance, namely, rates or cess. Thomason's scheme of vernacular education imposed the *halquabandi* cess in 1851 which was assessed on the rental value of the land and collected along with the land revenue. It was so successful that the Despatch of 1854 commended it to other provinces. When grant-in-aid system failed to encourage primary education, the Despatch of 1859 recommended the levy of a compulsory rate as the only really effective step to be taken for permanently supplying the deficiency of funds for mass education. Later the Government of India enlarged the scope of these local rates by utilizing the proceeds not only for education but for all objects of local utility. A member of the executive council of the governor-general of India, Mr. Lang, known as 'the great exponent of the principle of local taxes', said in his budget speech of 1860-61: "If this great empire is ever to have the roads, the schools, the local police and other instruments of civilization, it is simply impossible that the Imperial Government can find either the money or the management."

Accordingly a cess was generally imposed in all provinces except Bengal during the decade 1861-71 to meet the expenditure on several objects of local utility including education. In rural areas it took the form of a rate on land revenue and in urban areas, a tax on house collected through municipalities. In Bengal the Permanent Settlement of Land Revenue prevented any such imposition of taxes until this legal lacuna was removed by Despatch No. 5 of May 12, 1870. Even then the Bengal Government did not impose any such local rates for fear of annoying the public.

The Indian Education Commission of 1882 found that the proceeds of the local fund cess were not being spent on primary education as originally intended but large portions of it were being spent on secondary and even collegiate education. It, therefore, recommended that the cess should mainly be spent on primary education and that it would be wrong either to assign only a small portion of it to education as against roads, etc. or to incur a large expenditure therefrom on higher education. The Hartog Committee after considering the powers given to local authorities to levy an educational cess was of opinion

¹ A. Misra. *op. cit.* p. 54.

that primary education was fundamentally a 'nation-building service' and, therefore, the central government could not absolve itself of the responsibility of mass education by shifting it on the local bodies with meagre resources.

The educational cess realised in Bombay Province in 1865-66 was Rs. 3,19,524 and that in the whole of the country in 1870 was Rs. 15,72,829. The proceeds of these cesses have not been separately mentioned in the later records because with the coming of local bodies into being by Government Resolution of 1882, they were included in the local funds and municipal funds. The local and district boards provided funds for mainly primary education in the rural areas and the municipal boards spent on education in towns and cities. The law requiring this educational expenditure was only permissive and not obligatory. There was no specific portion of the total cess fixed for being spent on education. Therefore, the contributions from municipal funds and local funds—the two new sources of educational expenditure born during this period—have been very small. The contributions from municipal and local funds have been respectively Rs. 4.6 lakhs and Rs. 27.4 lakhs in 1881-82, Rs. 15.4 lakhs and 58.9 lakhs in 1901-02, Rs. 79.1 lakhs and Rs. 168.3 lakhs in 1921-22, Rs. 189.8 lakhs and Rs. 268.3 lakhs in 1941-42 and Rs. 699.2 lakhs and Rs. 1,067 lakhs in 1956-57. The proportional contribution from municipal funds to the total educational expenditure has oscillated between 2.5 per cent in 1881-82 to 6.2 per cent in 1941-42 and that of local funds between 14.7 per cent in 1881-82 to 4.2 per cent in 1956-57¹. The municipal contribution has been on the increase ever since 1881-82 and fell only in Free India while local fund contribution has been steadily decreasing from that year to the present times. The expenditure during post-independence period fell because of proportionately larger contribution from state revenues and because of meagre resources left to local bodies under the new Constitution.

The main sources of educational finance in pre-British period were endowments, donations and gifts but during the British period they were grouped together and called 'other sources'. As the appellation shows they were not the main source but came next in importance to government subvention and fees. These 'other sources' in recent times have been separated into two, viz., endowments and 'other sources,' the latter including subscriptions, donations, gifts, etc. The income from these 'other sources' has depended on public munificence and hence has been very fluctuating. The 'other sources' contributed 25.8 per cent of the total educational expenditure in 1870-71, 20.2 per cent in 1881-82, 24 per cent in 1901-02, 16.7 per cent in 1921-22, 13.8 per cent in 1941-42 and 6.1 per cent in

¹ *Ibid.* p. 56.

1956-57¹. The proportional contribution from 'other sources' has been steadily decreasing since 1881-82.

This is how the five different sources of financing education evolved. They were (1) government revenue; (2) local funds for rural areas; (3) municipal funds for urban areas; (4) fees and (5) 'other sources' which included donations from the public or private charity. These sources of education continue to be the same even at present except that one more of 'foreign aid' has been added quite recently. This aid is received through the Centre in the form of scholarships, equipment, personnel and cost of certain developmental programmes in education.

OBJECTS OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

All expenditure on education is classified under two main heads namely 'Direct' and 'Indirect'. 'Direct' expenditure means the operational cost of instruction and is the amount spent directly for the maintenance of the institutions and payment of salaries of the staff. 'Indirect' expenditure represents the amount incurred on direction, inspection, buildings, furniture, scholarships, hostels and other miscellaneous items which by their nature cannot be apportioned to any individual institution or type of institution. The indirect expenditure is usually accounted for under two sub-heads namely 'miscellaneous' which includes all the above mentioned items under it except direction and inspection which is shown under a separate head. Direct expenditure is accounted for under the names of various branches of education—universities, boards of education, research institutions, art and science colleges, colleges for professional and technical education, colleges for special education, post-basic schools, higher secondary schools, high and middle schools, primary and pre-primary schools, vocational and technical schools, and special education schools.²

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE TODAY

At the dawn of independence in India, it was considered necessary to give priority to educational development but the colossal problems arising out of partition and newly won freedom did not allow the government to spend as much on education as it would have desired. However, the First Five-Year Plan which started in 1951, although it gave top priority to agriculture followed by industries for increasing production, admitted that no plan would succeed unless it invested on improvement of human material, and that even from the point of view of increasing production, social services like education and technical

¹ *Ibid.* p. 57.

² *Education in the States*, 1956-57. p. 5.

training brought in significant returns. The Plan viewed education for the first time as the part of the total national effort and considered its role crucial for the democratic set-up of the country. It, therefore, urged that "it is extremely urgent that possible sources of help should be discovered and fully utilized for the educational development." It desired that grave disparities between different states in the matter of provision of educational finances and facilities should be done away with and the internal distribution of expenditure should be so adjusted and the central grants should be so dispersed that at least the serious inequalities between states tend to disappear.¹

With the launching of the Plan the expenditure on education began to rise. The government expenditure on education in 1947 was Rs. 20.45 crores or 44.4 per cent of the total expenditure of Rs. 45.17 crores from all sources. It rose to Rs. 65.27 crores in 1951 which was 57.1 per cent of the total 114.38 crores, to Rs. 117.20 crores in 1956 which was 61.4 per cent of the total Rs. 189.66 crores and to Rs. 153.48 crores in 1958 which was 65.0 per cent of the total expenditure of Rs. 235.67 crores on education². But even this amount is hardly adequate to meet the country's educational requirements. As an official report admits, "This is undoubtedly an appreciable increase, but in view of the estimates of Rs. 4,000 million that is needed to finalise a truly national system of education, it is also an indication of the gap that remains to be bridged."³ And the Draft of the Third Five-Year Plan points out that "in relation to the size of the problem and the need to develop country's human resources and to create conditions of equal opportunity for all, more rapid development is considered essential."⁴

The Centre and the states have been continuously increasing their proportional allocations for education from their total budgets. The Central Government spent Rs. 3.93 crores in 1950-51 which was .96 per cent of the total budget and Rs. 14.18 crores in 1956-57 which was 2.6 per cent and Rs. 37.32 crores in 1958-59 which was 3.5 per cent of the total budget of the Centre. The state governments too have been considerably increasing their allocations to education. In 1951-52 only two states, Mysore (21.8 per cent) Ajmer (26.2 per cent) were assigning more than twenty per cent of their total budgets, to education and the average proportion of the states worked out to 14.8 per cent but in 1956-57 as many as twelve states and union territories assigned more than twenty per cent of their total budget to education and the average for the states was 20.3 per cent. In

¹ A. Misra. "The Financial Policy in Education," *Shiksha*, April, 1959. p. 174.

² *India 1960*. Delhi. The Publications Division. p. 112.

³ *7th Years of Freedom*. Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1957. p. 64.

⁴ *Five-Year Plan — A Draft Outline*. Government of India, 1960. p. 98.

1958-59 the proportion of the total budget allotted to education was more than 24 per cent in four states, Delhi, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh and Punjab, between 20 and 24 in nine states, between 10 and 20 per cent in six states and less than 10 per cent in the remaining two states. Bombay earmarked the largest amount for education followed by Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Madras and West Bengal among the states and Delhi, Tripura and Himachal Pradesh among the Union territories.

EDUCATION UNDER THE FIVE-YEAR PLANS

FINANCIAL ASPECTS. — India has put into operation two five-year plans, the first in 1951-56 and the second in 1956-61, and the draft of the Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66) is ready. While the First Plan provided Rs. 169 crores—Rs. 44 crores at the Centre and Rs. 125 crores in the states—for educational development, the Second Plan assigned Rs. 275 crores—Rs. 68 crores at the Centre and Rs. 207 crores in the states. Numerically the outlay on education has increased in the Second Plan but its percentage to total outlay of the plan records a decline from 7 in the First to 6 in the Second. The allocation of funds in the two plans to the various branches of education is given below

TABLE 41

Educational Expenditure Under the First Two Five-Year Plans

Fields of education	First plan (Rs. in crores)	Second Plan (Rs. in crores)
Elementary Education	93	92.39
Secondary Education	22	50.87
University Education	15	45.39
Technical and Vocational Education	23	52.28
Social Education	5	4.50
Administration & Miscellaneous	11	29.57
TOTAL	169	275

It will be observed that more than half of the total allocation on education in the First Plan was provided for elementary education as against one-third in the Second Plan. Except in social education where the provision has decreased a little from Rs. 5.0 crores in the First Plan to Rs. 4.5 crores in the Second Plan, that for all other items has gone up in the Second Plan. In secondary education and technical and vocational education it has increased nearly 2.3 times, in university education 3 times and in miscellaneous items 2.7 times.

ACHIEVEMENTS.—There has been a considerable progress in the development of education during the two plans. The number of elementary schools has risen from 2,23,000 in 1950-51 to 3,85,000 in 1960-61. The percentage of children attending the primary and middle schools in the age-groups 6-11 and 11-14 has gone up from 43.1 and 12.9 respectively in 1950-51 to 60.0 and 22.6 in 1960-61. The number of high (secondary) schools has increased from 7,288 in 1950-51 to 14,000 in 1960-61 and pupils of age-group 14-17 in them has risen from 5.4 per cent before the First Plan to 12 per cent at the end of the Second Plan. The universities and colleges have increased from 29 and 516 in 1950-51 to 41 and 1,050 respectively in 1960-61 and the students in them from 4,03,519 to 9,00,000 during the period. The increase in school enrolment has been nearly 75 per cent and that in universities and colleges 140 per cent during the two plans. Facilities for technical education have also been considerably augmented during this period. The annual intake of students in degree and diploma courses in engineering and technology has increased from 10,000 in 1950-51 to 37,175 in 1960-61, which is nearly four times. The annual intake in agriculture and veterinary colleges has also increased from 1,500 to 5,800 during the period.

In 1956-57, for which figures are readily available, 54.4 per cent of educable population was in primary schools, 17 per cent in middle schools and only 9.2 per cent of the educable population of secondary stage in high schools. Kerala was the only state which provided facilities for all educable children of the three age-groups. Out of every hundred people about 9 were attending an educational institution of one type or the other in 1956-57, and on an average there was one educational institution for 1,000 persons.

THE THIRD PLAN.—The programmes of education in the Third Plan entail an outlay of Rs. 421 crores. This comprises: pre-school education Rs. 2 crores, primary education Rs. 209 crores, secondary education Rs. 89 crores, university education Rs. 82 crores, social education Rs. 6 crores, physical education and youth welfare Rs. 12 crores, other programmes Rs. 11 crores and cultural programmes Rs. 10 crores.

In addition, a provision of Rs. 37 crores has been made for social, primary and secondary education under the community development programmes and another Rs. 32 crores for specific programmes of education for scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes, thereby bringing the total development outlay for general education to about Rs. 490 crores in the Third Plan against an estimated expenditure of Rs. 250 crores in the Second Plan.

The total expenditure on the development of general education from government and other sources during the Third Plan is, however, likely to exceed Rs. 1,050 crores.

Non-governmental sources contributed about Rs. 49 crores in 1950 and the amount increased to Rs. 83 crores in 1957-58. The increase in these contributions is likely to be greater in future as a result of the transference of responsibility for educational programmes at the field level to *panchayats* and *panchayat samitis*. It is estimated that non-governmental contribution may be Rs. 130 crores by 1965-66.

The targets aimed at, at the end of the Third Plan in terms of enrolment in various types of institutions are given below:

TABLE 42

Expected Enrolment in Educational Institutions in 1966

Institutions	Enrolment in lakhs	Percentage of educable population of that age-group
Primary Schools (6-11)	504	80
Middle Schools (11-14)	100	30
High Schools (14-17)	44	15
University	9	—
Technical Colleges (degrees)	12	—
Polytechnics (diplomas)	19	—

At the elementary stage the marked disparity between boys and girls attending school will have to be removed in order to attain the targets. The process of converting elementary schools into basic pattern will be continued and 80 per cent of teachers will be trained for the purpose. At the secondary stage efforts will be made to increase facilities for science education, to improve the existing multipurpose schools and increase their number, and to set up new higher secondary schools. The measures initiated at the university stage by the University Grants Commission for the improvement of the quality of education will be implemented fully during the Third Plan and the facilities for teaching of science will be expanded to increase the proportion of science students to about 40 per cent. To reduce the pressure on universities and colleges, evening classes and correspondence courses will be encouraged. For channeling the energies of youth to socially fruitful purposes, a scheme of compulsory national service and moral instruction is proposed to be started.

The facilities available for training technical personnel in the Second Plan will meet the requirements of the Third Plan and the small shortfall will be made up by providing training facilities in research institutions and technical organisations. The technical institutions prepared to be opened under the Third Plan besides helping to meet the shortfalls during

the period will cope with the demand of 75,000 graduates and 120,000 diploma-holders of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. Emphasis will be laid on mechanical, electrical and chemical engineering besides other branches of technology in the Third Plan and some of the existing institutes will be developed to answer the increasing demand.

SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

We may study now the various sources that have contributed to the educational expenditure and their proportional contributions during all these years. The following table shows the amount of expenditure met from different sources and their percentage to the total expenditure in the years which mark the beginning and the end of the First Five-Year Plan and the second year of the Second Plan.

TABLE 43
Expenditure on Education by Sources, 1950-59*

Sources	1950-51		1955-56		1956-57		1957-58		1958-59	
	% age of Total	Amount in Crores of Rs.	% age of Total	Amount in Crores of Rs.	% age of Total	Amount in Crores of Rs.	% age of Total	Amount in Crores of Rs.	% age of Total	Amount in Crores of Rs.
Government Funds	57.1	65.27	61.8	117.20	64.0	129.57	65.6	157.89	65.6	167.43
District board funds	6.9	7.86	5.2	9.90	4.1	10.67	4.1	9.70	3.5	8.84
Municipal board funds	4.0	4.64	3.4	6.46	3.3	6.94	3.1	7.49	3.1	7.94
Fees	20.4	23.33	20.0	37.90	10.4	40.10	18.1	43.64	18.6	47.56
Endowments	2.2	2.46	3.0	5.69	3.1	6.44	2.9	6.98	2.9	7.74
Others	9.4	10.82	6.6	12.51	6.1	12.57	6.2	14.95	6.3	16.02
Total	100	114.38	100	189.66	100	206.29	100	240.65	100	255.26

* India, 1961. p. 90.

The table shows that expenditure on education has been continuously mounting and has more than doubled itself in seven years, the annual increase being nearly Rs. 20 crores. The main brunt of expenditure has been borne by the government, which has met about two-thirds of the total expenditure by increasing its proportional contribution every year. The next important source has been fees, which have met a decreasing proportion of the total expenditure. All other sources make proportionately smaller contributions but that too has steadily decreased except for the endowments which showed slight improvement in first five years.

It will be interesting to note how these different sources met the expenditure on education in the states. The table following shows the percentage contribution to the total expenditure from various sources.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION 1958-59

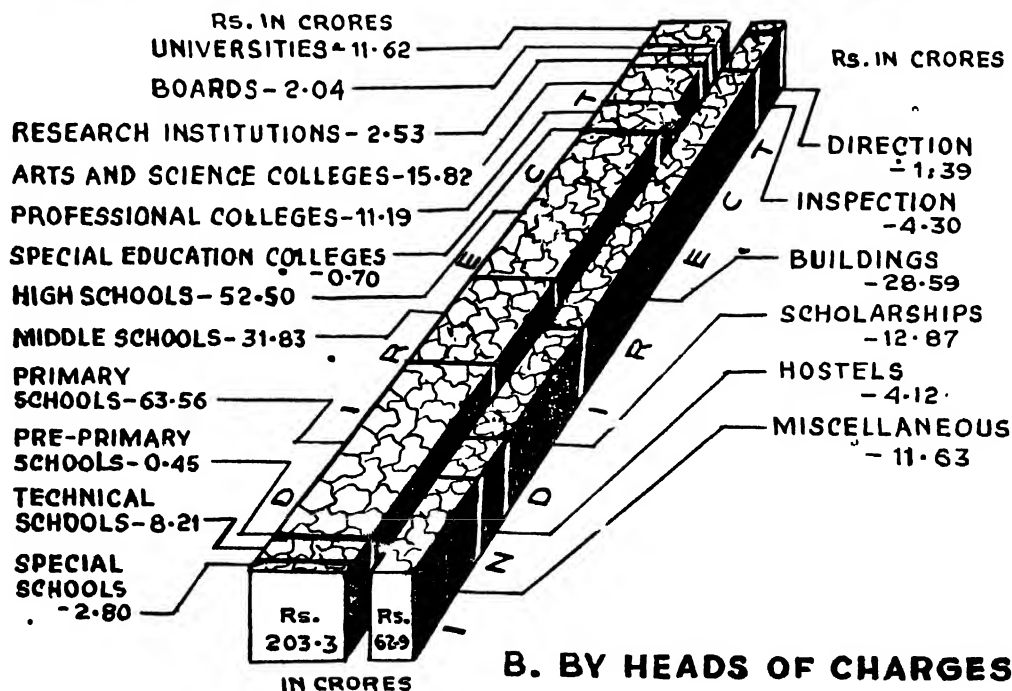
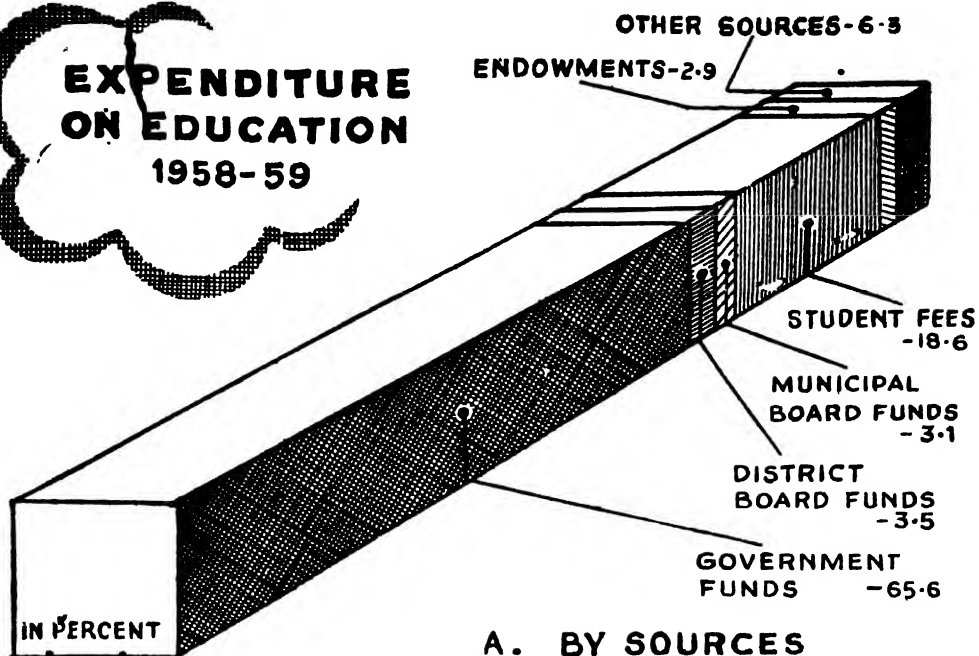


TABLE 44

Provision of Educational Expenditure in the States by Sources, 1956-57*

Name of the State	Central	State	From District Board Funds	From Municipal Board Funds	From Fees	From Endowments etc.	From other sources	Total
Andhra	3.55	58.76	11.19	2.02	14.45	3.36	6.63	14,74,15,131
Assam	6.52	65.90	0.45	0.19	18.94	4.74	3.22	4,85,72,720
Bihar	3.17	46.85	19.04	2.61	18.42	1.33	8.56	13,76,73,957
Bombay	5.88	54.42	2.16	6.80	22.15	20.07	6.55	37,92,64,127
Jammu and Kashmir	0.77	90.86	—	—	4.01	0.94	3.40	1,25,14,855
Kerala	2.77	74.03	3.31	0.34	14.56	0.42	4.54	11,38,43,760
Madhya Pradesh	2.01	80.80	3.75	2.36	6.31	1.07	3.66	11,01,20,623
Madras	3.82	53.51	9.62	5.06	16.10	11.30	0.56	19,36,00,238
Mysore	6.73	67.11	4.00	2.26	10.85	1.26	7.74	10,76,61,398
Orissa	2.85	78.28	1.29	0.36	8.89	3.34	4.96	4,53,81,696
Punjab	4.66	44.83	5.49	4.02	28.72	5.92	6.33	11,33,44,647
Rajasthan	6.71	76.48	0.74	0.16	9.19	4.28	2.40	5,96,98,457
Uttar Pradesh	9.67	43.41	4.70	2.88	26.51	1.55	11.25	27,76,62,802
West Bengal	8.86	51.00	1.82	1.65	28.52	2.75	5.38	23,36,94,291

* *Education in the States, 1956-57. Ministry of Education, 1959. pp. 164-65.*

There are remarkable differences between the states in the extent to which the various sources contribute to educational expenditure. Central subsidies are as low as 0.77 per cent for Jammu and Kashmir and as high as 9.67 for Uttar Pradesh. The state government finances education to the extent of 90.86 per cent in Jammu and Kashmir but only to the extent of 43.91 in Uttar Pradesh. Seven states meet more than two-thirds of expenditure, four a little more than half and three less than half of the expenditure. Local bodies share very little responsibility in Assam, Kerala, Orissa and Rajasthan. The fee receipts are as low as 4.01 per cent in Jammu and Kashmir or 6.31 in Madhya Pradesh and as high as 28.52 in West Bengal or 28.72 in Punjab. Income from endowments are encouraging in Bombay and discouraging in Kerala. The other sources contribute a small amount, the highest being in Uttar Pradesh. The highest expenditure on education is in Bombay followed by U.P. and West Bengal, it is lowest in Jammu and Kashmir preceded by Orissa and Assam.

SHARING RESPONSIBILITY BY MANagements

How is the responsibility of expenditure shared by the various agencies that manage educational institutions? These can be broadly classified into three types, e.g., the government, the local bodies and private agencies. The direct expenditure by managements and its percentage to the total in the year 1956-57 are shown in Table 45:

TABLE 45

Direct Expenditure on Institutions by Management*

Management	1955-56		1956-57		Percentage Increase
	Amount Rs.	%age	Amount Rs.	%age	
Government	40,30,13,110	27.8	43,85,79,271	27.5	8.8
District Board	30,40,93,291	21.0	34,12,42,531	21.4	12.2
Municipal Board	9,86,51,446	6.8	10,38,38,432	6.5	5.3
Private Bodies:					
Aided	56,99,10,193	39.4	63,04,67,786	39.5	10.6
Unaided	7,24,00,745	5.0	8,22,26,491	5.1	13.6
Total	1,44,80,68,785	100.0	1,59,63,54,511	100.0	10.2

Education in India, 1956-57. Vol. I. Ministry of Education, G.O.I., 1961. p. 27.

During 1956-57, the government managed 23.1 per cent, local boards 41.3 per cent and private bodies 32.8 per cent of the total number of institutions. It will be seen that 27.5 per cent of the total expenditure was accounted for the government and 27.9 local boards and 44.6 per cent was incurred by private bodies. The local boards managed mostly primary schools hence though the number of institutions was large, yet the expenditure was comparatively low.

DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE

During the course of eight years 1950-57, the number of institutions increased by about 25 per cent and the enrolment by about 49 per cent, but the expenditure went up by 98 per cent. More than half of this increase in expenditure was taken by primary and secondary schools. The expenditure has been progressively increasing for all types of institutions except adult and other special schools where it has been fluctuating. But the proportion to the total expenditure in the case of individual institutions reveals a somewhat different trend. The expenditure on research institutions has almost doubled, on colleges for professional and special education it has increased from 3.6 per cent to 28.4 per cent, on universities and arts and science colleges it remained the same, while in the case of other types it declined during 1950-57. The indirect expenditure shows an abrupt rise in 1954-55 and 1955-56, the last two years of the First Five-Year Plan.¹ It was 21 per cent of the total expenditure in 1950-51 but 23 per cent in 1955-56.

It is interesting to note that the states also differ strikingly in the expenditure on different branches of education as Table 46 shows:

Education in India — A Graphic Presentation. Ministry of Education; 1959. p. 22.

TABLE 46

Percentage of the Total Direct and Indirect Expenditure Allocated to Different Branches of Education, 1956-57*

States	INDIRECT		DIRECT					
	Direction and Inspection	Miscellaneous	Higher education	Secondary education	Primary education	Pre-primary education	Vocational and technical education	Special education
Andhra	2.02	15.12	14.07	22.68	42.26	0.05	2.73	1.06
Assam	3.3	25.4	11.2	32.11	22.8	0.08	4.3	.81
Bihar	2.44	34.04	13.97	26.04	18.45	0.03	3.2	1.83
Bombay	1.48	17.29	14.76	30.71	31.05	0.39	3.52	0.8
Jammu and Kashmir	2.57	20.99	15.36	39.17	19.9	—	2.01	—
Kerala	2.12	24.19	9.5	30.93	31.55	0.01	1.38	0.32
Madhya Pradesh	3.65	17.28	13.39	26.31	31.57	0.3	3.3	1.2
Madras	1.84	24.12	12.95	21.29	36.42	0.08	2.61	0.69
Mysore	1.82	18.76	12.81	25.74	36.82	0.14	3.34	0.57
Orissa	3.28	32.9	9.57	19.59	25.72	—	2.69	6.25
Punjab	2.14	11.92	19.79	39.64	23.55	0.01	2.45	0.5
Rajasthan	2.92	8.38	20.86	37.46	26.19	(0.002)	2.39	1.8
Uttar Pradesh	2.14	16.66	24.13	31.85	20.47	0.1	2.5	2.15
West Bengal	0.98	26.97	18.02	25.56	23.53	0.1	2.75	2.09
INDIA	2.0	20.62	16.27	28.47	28.34	0.14	2.8	1.35

Prepared from Education in the States, 1956-57, Ministry of Education, 1959.

It will be observed that the proportion of the indirect expenditure was the highest in Bihar (36.48 per cent) and Orissa (36.18 per cent) and the lowest in Rajasthan (11.30 per cent) and Punjab (11.06 per cent), the average for the country being 22.3 per cent of the total expenditure. The expenditure on direction and inspection had the highest proportion in Madhya Pradesh (3.65 per cent), followed by Assam (3.3 per cent) and Orissa (3.28 per cent). Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Punjab spent proportionately more than the remaining states on higher education and Kerala and Orissa spent the least. The proportion spent on secondary and primary schools was usually the highest but even here Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Rajasthan, West Bengal spent more on secondary than on primary education and Uttar Pradesh spent more even on higher education than on primary education. Proportional expenditure on vocational and technical schools, special schools and pre-primary schools was very small the least being in the case of pre-primary education. The needs of different states are different no doubt, but if priority was desired for primary education, the greatest proportion should have gone to it in every state. Taking India as a whole, secondary and primary education claimed almost equal proportion followed by indirect expenditure and higher education.

EXPENDITURE ON GIRLS' EDUCATION

The total direct expenditure on girls' education during 1951-57, shows a rise as will be evident from the following table:

TABLE 47

Total Direct Expenditure on Girls' Education, 1951-57

Year	Rs. (in crores)	Percentage increase over previous year
1951-52	13.54	7.8
1952-53	14.50	7.1
1953-54	15.56	7.3
1954-55	17.30	11.2
1955-56	19.35	11.8
1956-57	20.75	7.3

There has been an increase of Rs. 7.21 crores in five years, or over Rs. one and a half crores annually. The increase was greatest in the last two years of the First Five-Year Plan but it was not kept up in the Second Plan year. Looking to the enormous number of girls out of schools, more money will have to be spent to achieve the targets of the plans. Out of a total Third Plan allotment of Rs. 490 crores for programmes of general education, it is proposed to allocate Rs. 175 crores for girls' education.

EXPENDITURE ON SCHOLARSHIPS

To ameliorate the conditions of the under-privileged classes, the Central Government awarded scholarships to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes for post-matriculation studies. The expenditure on this item rose to about 2.02 crores in 1957-58 which was forty times the amount spent since the country attained independence. The average expenditure per student on this account was Rs. 601 for other backward classes, Rs. 441 for scheduled tribes and Rs. 379 for scheduled castes. Besides these, expenditure was incurred in awarding scholarships for merit and foreign studies as well. The total expenditure on scholarships in 1956-57 was Rs. 9.07 crores.

PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE

The average annual cost per capita of population rose from Rs. 3.2 in 1950-51 to Rs. 5.3 in 1956-57, showing an increase of about 63 per cent. The cost per capita of the population was highest in Delhi (Rs. 29.1) followed by Andaman Nicobar Islands (Rs. 11.7) and Tripura (Rs. 10.5), West Bengal (Rs. 8.2), Kerala (Rs. 7.5) and lowest in NEFA (Rs. 2.2)

COST PER CAPITA (OF POPULATION) ON EDUCATION IN STATES 1958-59

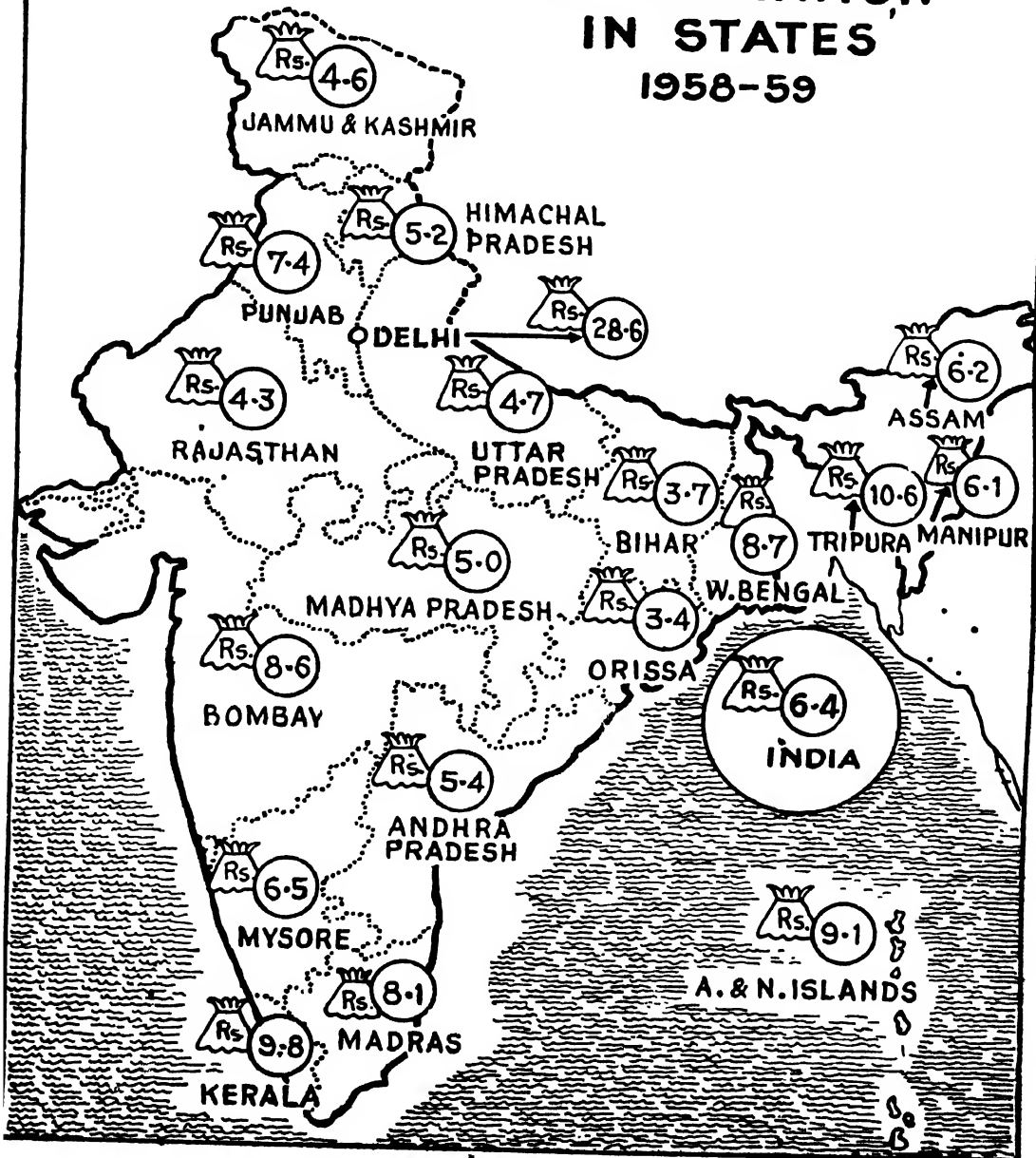


CHART 19

preceded by Jammu and Kashmir (Rs. 2.7), Orissa (Rs. 3) and Rajasthan (Rs. 3.5). The annual cost of educating a pupil in 1956-57 was Rs. 225.1 in an arts and science college, Rs. 61.3 in a secondary school, and Rs. 24.4 in a primary school.¹

CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION.—The account given in the preceding sections of this chapter shows that there is a considerable rise in educational expenditure during the last decade; but even that is not sufficient to meet the educational needs of the nation. In the light of the experiences of the first two five-year plans, a Working Group on Education set up by the Planning Commission for the preparation of the Third Plan estimated that even on a modest scale a sum of Rs. 980.06 crores would be needed for educational expansion of this country during the third plan period. The broad distribution of this amount among different branches of education is given below:

TABLE 48

Financial Estimates of the Working Group on Education, Third Plan*

Section	Estimated outlay (Rs. in crores)	Percentage of the total outlay
Primary and Basic Education	502.46	51.3
Secondary Education	247.89	25.3
University and Higher Education	133.89	13.6
Physical Education and Youth Welfare Activities	30.16	3.1
Social Education and Audio-visual Education	35.64	3.6
Education of the Handicapped	3.21	0.3
Scholarships	0.77	0.1
Development of Hindi and Sanskrit	6.27	0.6
Other programmes	19.97	2.1
	980.06	100.00

* Report of the Working Group on Education, Third Five-Year Plan p. 28

The Working Group made a dispassionate analysis of educational needs of the country, reported on these needs to the nation as accurately as possible, and made a careful estimate of total cost of the entire project. But the hopes of the Group have not been fulfilled, and only half the estimated amount, Rs. 490 crores, has been sanctioned for carrying out the educational programme during the Third Plan period.

¹ *Education in the States, 1956-57.* Ministry of Education. 1959. p. 1.

SUGGESTIONS BY FIVE-YEAR PLANS. — That education is an essential element for national development has been recognised by all, but adequate money is not forthcoming for this national cause because of paucity of funds. Our five-year plans have, however, suggested some fundamental principles for distribution of funds over different branches of education. For example, it has been suggested that the pre-school education should mainly be supported by private enterprise and local bodies. The state subventions should provide for research in methods and training of teachers in the field. Free and universal primary education should be the responsibility of the state. Instead of spending on ordinary primary education, all resources should be concentrated on basic education. Therefore, the closest co-operation alone between the central and state governments, local and non-official bodies could achieve this colossal task.¹

For secondary education, the capital expenditure should be provided partly by the state and partly by the local people and the recurring expenditure should be partly met by introducing productive activities like agriculture, handicraft and small scale industries. In the field of pre-university education, the Centre should substantially help every backward states and only subsidise others. In the universities, the sources of income have reached their limit, therefore, the burden for their improvement must be borne chiefly by the states. The expenditure on social education may be shared by other departments of the government like agriculture, health, veterinary, community projects for whatever activities fall within their purview, but all planned progress should be at the cost of the state.²

The responsibility of technical education should be borne by the central and state governments on the one hand and industry and commerce on the other. For research and advanced courses, the Centre should bear the main responsibility. For under-graduate work and technical bias in secondary education, the state should shoulder the financial burden. The junior technical and apprenticeship courses should be financed by the industry in co-operation with the state. Commerce and industry should help technical institutions at all stages to the best of their capacity.³

In distribution of finances assigning responsibilities alone for various branches of education is not enough, priorities should be determined according to which funds should be allocated. The First Plan suggested the following order of emphasis in education. "Side by side with the consolidation and improvement of existing facilities, high priority should be

¹ A. Misra, *Finance of Education in India*, *op.cit.*, pp. 70-71.

² *Ibid.* p. 72.

³ *Loc. cit.*

given to experiment and research in improved educational methods; to the training of teachers; to the preparation of literature for teachers, children and adults; to providing adequate facilities for basic and social education; the developing technical and vocational education." In the field of university education, high priority was given to the improvements of standards and development of post-graduate work and research.

The Second Five-Year Plan drafted on the experience gained during the First Plan period despaired the fulfilment of the Constitutional directive in regard to primary education, unless the government resources were supplemented in increasing measure by local community efforts. It, therefore, recommended legislation to enable authorities to levy an educational cess. The Working Group of Education for Third Plan further remarked, "The only ambitious project is the introduction of compulsory and universal education for the 6-11 age-group."¹

CENTRAL AID. — During recent years, the Government of India is showing increasing interest in the cause of education. The Central Government has inescapable social and citizenship responsibilities, which it can best discharge by financial aid designed to help the states maintain effective provision of education. The Committee on Administrative and Financial Problems of the Working Group held that so far as schemes which have nothing very special about them are concerned, central assistance to the states be provided on a 100 per cent basis. But so far as an important national problem like the compulsory education programme is concerned the Committee considered it necessary to give special assistance to backward states.² It may be noted that the states vary widely in educational opportunities because of great differences in wealth and population. Specially these differences have to do with wealth, income, tax-paying ability, and the educable population. It has been observed that in general, states having smaller financial resources per capita have a larger number of children per adult. The Government of India should help to reduce these inequalities in educational opportunities through additional Central aid for education.

At the same time, there is need for proper planning and a good understanding between the Centre and the states. In this regard the following suggestions may prove helpful: (i) planning of all schemes should be completed at least a year in advance so that all difficulties with regard to provision of funds in the budget and actual implementation from the beginning of the year are avoided; (ii) there should be proper co-ordination both

¹ Report of the Working Group on Education, *Third-Five Year Plan*. p. 27.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 220-221.

at the Centre and the states as well as between various departments; and (iii) the Ministry of Education should play a more effective role in advising the states for this purpose; (iv) the Ministry should draw on the experience of qualified persons in the state education department.¹

LOCAL AND VOLUNTARY SUPPORT. — It will also be necessary to enlist the cooperation of all local bodies, semi-official agencies and voluntary organisations. They play a very important role in the development of education. In this connection the following two suggestions of the Committee on Administration and Financial Problems deserve our attention: (i) the administration of education should progressively be decentralised by delegation of greater authority to local bodies in supporting and administering education; and (ii) the working of the local bodies should be reformed. They should be provided with (a) adequate independent sources of finance, (b) adequate responsibility and authority, (c) adequately trained personnel, and (d) wise guidance by state authorities. Moreover voluntary organisations should be suitably helped financially and otherwise, enabling them to take up educational work in a greater measure. It should be appreciated that:

Education is concerned with the development and training of the basic resources for all national progress, the creative human personality on which depends eventually all progress and all grace and saviour of life. The investment made in this field is bound to pay rich and ample dividends even though the investment is a long range one and the dividends are not easily perceptible to the naked, unobservant eye.²

¹ *Loc. cit.*

² *Loc. cit.*

LITERACY PERCENTAGES IN STATES 1961



MEN



WOMEN



ALL PERSONS

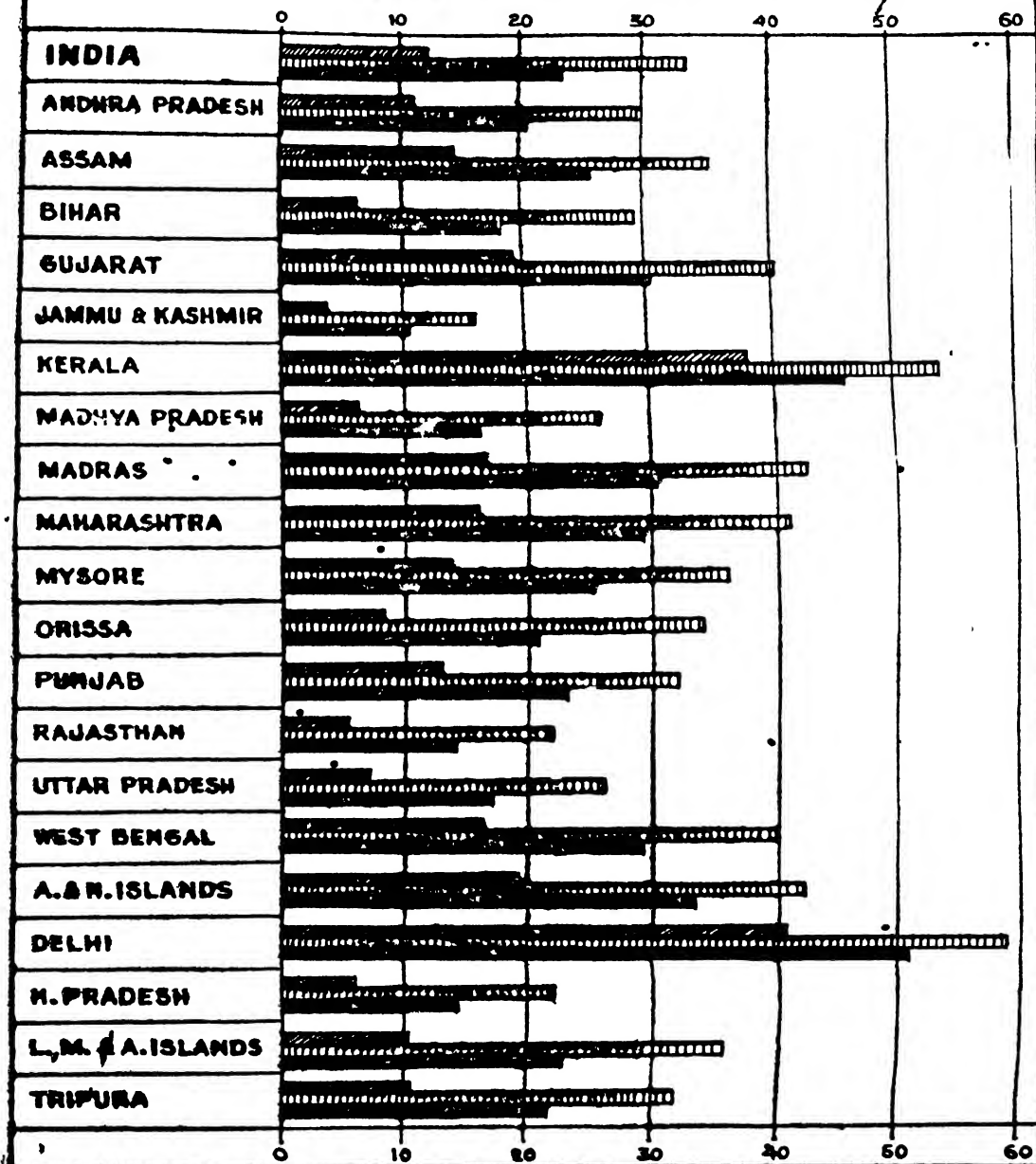


CHART 20

PART THREE

Administration of Education in the States and Union Territories

CHAPTER

14. *Andhra Pradesh*
15. *Assam*
16. *Bihar*
17. *Gujarat*
18. *Jammu And Kashmir*
19. *Kerala*
20. *Madhya Pradesh*
21. *Madras*
22. *Maharashtra*
23. *Mysore*
24. *Orissa*
25. *Punjab*
26. *Rajasthan*
27. *Uttar Pradesh*
28. *West Bengal*
29. *Union Territories*
30. *Delhi*
31. *Tripura*

Education is legally a function of the State. Part Three deals with the system of state administration of education in this country.

India has today fifteen States and every State has its own machinery of administration of education. In spite of prevalent diverse practices in administration in the States, there is a good deal of uniformity in organization.

This part also describes how education is administered in the Union Territories. While Chapter Twenty-nine gives a bird's eye view of the system of educational administration of the majority of Union Territories, the last two chapters of this book have been specially devoted to the detailed discussion of the administrative set-up of Delhi and Tripura.

INTRODUCTION

FORMATION OF THE STATE Andhra has a long history of great tradition and culture dating back several centuries, though as a linguistic state of the Republic of India it came into existence on 1st October 1953. The Andhra State Act of 1953 has a great significance in the history of new India in making as it marks the beginning of the reorganisation of states on linguistic basis.

In 1953, when the Andhra State was carved out of the old Madras State, it had an area of 63,608 square miles with a population of 20,507,801 (males 10,313,725 and females 10,194,076) according to the 1951 census. It consisted of 11 districts of the erstwhile Madras State.

The State went through further reorganisation under the Parliament's States Reorganisation Act, 1956. Under this Act the erstwhile Hyderabad State of Nizam was split up and its districts were merged with Bombay, Mysore and Andhra states. On the linguistic basis the Andhra State was allotted the Telugu speaking districts, viz., Adilabad, Hyderabad, Karimnagar, Khammam, Mulhobnagar, Medak, Nalgonda, Nizabad and Warangal of Telangana Area.

Thus the present Andhra Pradesh consists of 11 districts of Andhra area and 9 districts of Telangana Area. It has 1,06,052 square miles of area with a population of 3,59,77,999 and a density of population of 339 according to the 1961 census. Amongst the states of India, the present state is fourth in area, third in population and seventh in the density of population. It covers 8.1 per cent of the total area of the country and has 8.6 per cent of the total national population.

THE TWO AREAS OF THE STATE For following properly the educational development in the State and appraising its achievements and shortcomings, it is necessary to bear in mind the broad division of the State into Andhra area and Telangana area. When the present Andhra Pradesh came into existence in 1953, these two areas stood at different levels of educational development. They also differed in their administrative patterns. For instance, in the old Hyderabad State districts of Telangana area, most of the educational institutions at all levels were run by government and very little private effort

in education was developed. Against this, in 1955-56¹ out of 32 colleges of general education in Andhra Area, 26 colleges were run by private management and out of the total 21784 schools for general education including higher secondary schools, high schools, middle schools and basic and general primary schools, the state conducted only 759 schools, the remaining being conducted by district boards (10,071), municipalities (541) and private bodies (10,413)¹. The percentage of trained teachers in primary schools in the Andhra area was 96.6 whereas in the Hyderabad State it was only 21.8². The percentages of trained teachers in the Andhra area in middle schools and high schools were respectively 91.2 and 87.4 whereas these percentages in the Hyderabad State were respectively 44.3 and 51.7. In the Andhra area, at the primary stage the system of school classes was I, II, III, IV and V whereas in the Hyderabad State area it was Infant, I, II, III and IV. The minima and maxima of pay scales of primary and secondary teachers in the Andhra area and Hyderabad State, the middle passed and trained primary teachers' grade was Rs. 54-98½ (16 years) whereas in the Andhra area it was Rs. 30-50 (20 years). In several other things also the two areas differed markedly. The new State of Andhra Pradesh faced a very intricate and difficult task of integrating the two divergent administrative patterns and practices and evolving a pattern which would bring about uniformity in educational administrative pattern, enable the educationally advanced areas to maintain their advance in development and assist the educationally backward areas to develop rapidly so that the disparity in educational opportunities in the different parts of the State could be eliminated. It is to the credit of the State Education Department that in some vital aspects of educational administration, integration has been effected and a common educational administrative pattern for the State as a whole is being established.

PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

STATE SECRETARIAT OF EDUCATION. — As per the Constitution, the administration of education is the responsibility of the State Ministry of Education. The Minister of Education, who is also in the charge of the portfolio of transport, heads the Education Department in the State Secretariat. The Minister is assisted by a secretary at the secretariat level and two executive heads, one for public instruction and the other for technical education who offer technical advice in all educational matters and who carry out the educational policy and decisions of the state government.

Report on Public Instruction in the Andhra State 1955-56. Statistical Table III.

Education in India, 1955-56, Vol. I, Ministry of Education and Scientific Research.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP AT THE HEAD QUARTERS. — The Director of Public Instruction (D.P.I.)¹ is the head of the Directorate of Public Instruction and is assisted in the head office by three deputy directors (Secondary Education, Personnel and Finance) and three assistant directors. Besides these officers there is one deputy director for compulsory primary education, one statistical officer, one special officer for the propagation of Hindi and one special officer for nationalisation of text-books attached to the Directorate. There is also a separate audit branch with the chief auditor (for auditing the accounts of the colleges and schools). A new experiment for toning up the inspection of higher secondary and multipurpose schools and for improving the guidance functions of the inspectors, has been started. According to which, a team of five special inspecting officers for English, Telugu, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies was appointed in 1959-60. These inspecting officers are provided with necessary staff and are attached to the D.P.I.'s office.

REGIONAL DIVISIONS. — For bringing the administrative machinery closer to the people, the State area is divided into five regions. These regions are Kakinada, Anantapur, Guntur, Warangal and Hyderabad. The first two regions comprise of seven educational districts and each of the rest includes five educational districts. Each region is in the charge of a regional deputy director of public instruction. He controls the district officers and exercises direct inspection over gazetted headmasters in charge of secondary schools for boys and the training schools for men.

There are five inspectresses of girls' schools directly under the control of the D.P.I., that is to say, they are independent of the offices of the regional deputy directors and the district educational officers. They control, administer and inspect girls' institutions — secondary and training — under their jurisdiction.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL. — For the effective administration of education, the twenty revenue districts of the State are organised into twenty-nine 'educational districts'. The executive head of each educational district is designated as 'district educational officer' (D.E.O.). There are thirty D.E.O.s including one agency educational officer who is in charge of educational institutions in the Agency areas. A district educational officer is in charge of educational matters pertaining to his district. He is responsible for primary and secondary schools and for special schools of his district. On an average, a D.E.O. is in charge of an area containing about forty secondary schools.

¹ He is also the Commissioner for Government Examinations. There is a separate Office of Commissioner for Government Examinations at Hyderabad for this Branch. The D.P.I. is also the Director of Public Libraries. He is assisted by a Deputy Director. This branch is separated from the Education Directorate with effect from 1961 under the provisions of the Andhra Pradesh Public Libraries Act, 1960.

Below the district educational officers, there are offices of the deputy inspectors of schools category. This set-up has since been reorganised consequent on the formation of *samitees* in block areas. Each block (whether there is a *samitee* or not) is now provided with a deputy inspector's office. The deputy inspectors' offices in the *samitees* are controlled by the *panchayat samitees*. The deputy inspectors have to manage, administer and inspect the primary schools — normally sixty schools — in their jurisdiction. Where the number of schools is more than sixty, a junior deputy inspector of schools is allotted to assist the Deputy inspector.

DIRECTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION. — For the inspection and guidance of physical education activities, there are two gazetted officers under the direct control of the D.P.I., viz., the Chief Inspector of Physical Education, Kakinada for the Andhra area and the Inspector of Physical Education, Hyderabad for Telangana area. There are three regional inspectors of physical education under the Chief Inspector of Physical Education Kakinada and one regional inspector of physical education under the Inspector of P.E., Hyderabad. For the inspection and guidance of physical education activities in secondary schools and training schools for girls, there is an Inspectress of Physical Education for the State with headquarters at Hyderabad, assisted by two women regional inspectresses of physical education whose offices are located at Rajahmundry and Nellore. For the organisation of games and sports and for youth welfare activities, there is an Inspector of Games and Sports under the direct control of the D.P.I. with headquarters at Hyderabad. The N.C.C. and the A.C.C. activities in schools and colleges are controlled by the Commander, 12th Circle, N.C.C., Hyderabad who has jurisdiction over the whole State.

INSPECTION OF ORIENTAL SCHOOLS. — For the inspection and the control of oriental schools of the State, there is an inspector of schools with his headquarters at Vijaywada. He is under the direct administrative control of the D.P.I.

It would thus be seen that integration has been effected to an appreciable extent in the organisational and administrative set-up in education to the extent permitted by the present educational progress attained in the Telangana and Andhra areas and their problems and needs. The recent trend in the educational administration in the State is towards democratic decentralisation and bringing the administrative machinery closer to the people.

ADVISORY AND STATUTORY BODIES

At the state level, there is an advisory committee for education with the Minister of Education as its chairman. The vice-chancellors of the three universities of the State

are also members of this committee whose function is to advise the Minister on all matters relating to education. Besides this State Advisory Committee for Education, there are four other academic boards and committees functioning under the chairmanship of the State Director of Public Instruction. They are: the Board of Secondary Education, Board of Training School-Leaving Certificate Examination (T.S.L.C. Board), Text-Book Committee and the Committee of Authors of Nationalised Text-Books.

The Board of Secondary Education, representing as it does, universities, teachers and other interests, tenders advice to the D.P.I. on all matters relating to secondary education in the State, particularly, on syllabi and courses of studies, suitability of text-books and appointment of examiners. The T.S.L.C. Board performs similar functions in respect of training schools. The Text-Book Committee is an *ad-hoc* committee appointed in 1957. It screens books submitted by private publishers who are registered with the Department and prepares a list of approved text-books on the basis of their suitability. The number of registered publishers in March 1960 was 447.

One of the important recommendations of the Kuppuswami Committee on Elementary Education was that "the State should undertake to publish text-books at least at the primary stage and other stages wherever found feasible and the text-books should be uniform throughout the State."¹ In pursuance of this recommendation a committee for the nationalisation of text-books was constituted in 1957. The main functions of the committee is to get text-books written by authors according to the criteria determined by it and get them printed in good time to be made easily available to school children. All books of primary stage in Telugu had been covered by the nationalisation scheme except Reader III and subject books for I and IV classes (March 1960). Andhra Pradesh is thus in the good company of those states, which have nationalised school text-books.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.—As stated earlier, prior to the formation of Andhra State (i.e. prior to 1st October 1953), the educational districts of Shrikakulam, Visakhapatnam, East Godavari, West Godavari, Krishna (West), Krishna (East), Guntur (North), Guntur (South), Kurnool, Anantpur, Cuddapah, Nellore and Chittoor formed part of the composite Madras State. Primary education was administered in these districts under the Madras Elementary Education Act 1920 as amended from time to time. Subject to the approval of the state government this Act gave power to the local bodies (district boards, municipalities and *panchayat* boards to introduce compulsory education within

the whole or a specified part of the area under its jurisdiction. This Act had made provision enabling the local bodies to collect an educational cess for constituting an elementary education fund. The local bodies were also eligible to a contribution from government to their elementary education fund besides other subsidies. The Act was amended in 1937 so as to provide for preventing a child, when once he had been sent to school, from being removed within the period of compulsory age limits. The primary classes were from standards I to V and covered children of the age-group 6-12.

Basic education was introduced in a few selected areas of the State. Midday meals, and books and slates were supplied free of cost to all children in areas where compulsion was in force. From 1948, the shift system was introduced as a temporary measure in towns and other congested areas to enable the managements to solve the problem of accommodation. In 1951, the duration of each shift was reduced to 3 hours and the duration of each period to 35 minutes, but the teachers were required to work in both the shifts on an additional payment of Rs 10 per month. In June 1953, the modified scheme of elementary education (Rajaji's Scheme) was introduced in non-municipal areas whose main features were the three-hour school, the two-session school and the out-of-school programme for the children. The Rajaji's Scheme was, however, abandoned by the State in 1954.

When the Andhra State was formed, 51.8 per cent of the total 18,224 primary schools were managed by private agencies, 39.1 per cent by district boards and 3.5 per cent by government. There were 17,13,473 pupils (of which 6,57,069 were girls) studying in the primary schools. The percentage of children in primary classes to those of school-going age was 58.4. The percentage of girls in boys' schools to the total number of girls in primary classes was 99.9. There were 2,011 single-teacher schools which formed 11.1 per cent of the total number of primary schools and which had 5.1 per cent of the total enrolment in the primary schools. The wastage at the primary stage was about 60 per cent. Out of the total number of primary teachers (56,376), 94.7 per cent of teachers were trained. The State incurred 52.6 per cent of expenditure on primary schools, and in this respect it held the third rank among the Indian States (Madras spent 54.2 per cent and Kutch 54.9 per cent). In the case of source-wise percentage of expenditure on primary schools, 77.8 per cent of expenditure was met from government funds, the district board funds, municipal funds, fees and endowments sharing respectively 18.1, 3.1, 0.1 and 0.8 per cents of the total direct expenditure on primary schools. The average annual cost per pupil in primary schools was Rs. 21.6.

This was broadly the position in primary education in the first year of the life of the new Andhra State. In 1956, the State was expanded with the merging of the

Telugu-speaking Telangana Area of the old Hyderabad State. The Telangana Area had inherited from its parent Hyderabad State a district administrative pattern in primary education and it differed markedly in educational facilities at this stage. In 1957, therefore, the position of primary education in Andhra Pradesh was somewhat of the following order:

There were 28,948 primary schools of which 989 were of Basic pattern. The enrolment in the primary schools was 24,81,329 which came to be 58.6 per cent of the school-going children of this age-group. The trained teachers at the primary stage formed 79.9 per cent of the total strength of the staff. The direct expenditure on primary schools was Rs. 6,22,76,548 which constituted 42.8 per cent of the total direct expenditure on education. The annual cost of educating a child in a primary school was Rs. 25.1.

This was the position in primary education in the first year of the formation of the enlarged Andhra Pradesh. In the next three years considerable improvement and reconstruction have taken place in primary education, which will be discussed in the following few sections.

NEW ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP.— In the administration of primary education, the State has launched upon a new experiment. In pursuance of a policy of democratic decentralisation of power, the state government enacted in 1959 the Andhra Pradesh *Panchayat Samitees and Zilla Parishads* Act. As per the provisions of this Act, the whole State is delimited into 20 *zilla parishads* and 445 *panchayat samitee* blocks. In accordance with the aim of this Act, which is to transfer the responsibility of all local function to duly elected local units of administration, the following powers and functions in respect of primary education have been assigned to the *panchayat samitees* and the *zilla parishads*:

1. Management of government and district board elementary and higher elementary schools;
2. Provision and improvement of accommodation for schools with people's participation;
3. Conversion of existing primary schools into Basic schools;
4. Taking of such action as may be necessary for the promotion of education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years; and
5. Establishment of Adult Education Centres and Adult Literacy Centres, etc.

By making the *panchayat samitee block* as a unit of administration of primary education, the state government intends to bring the administration of primary education, which almost constitutes mass education closer to the people and ensure their direct interest and participation in it.

LOCAL AUTHORITIES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION.—Universal, free and compulsory primary education for the age-group 6-11 is one of the most important items in the State's Third Five-Year Plan and it has been introduced throughout the State from 1961-62. In order to improve the existing administrative machinery in the introduction and enforcement of compulsory education schemes, the state government has drafted a new bill—the Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Bill—which, if passed by the state legislature, will replace the existing law for compulsory education in the State.

Under Section 3(1) and (2) of the proposed Act, the government will call upon certain authorities to prepare schemes for introducing and enforcing compulsory primary education in the State. These authorities will be as under:

1. *Panchayat samitees* in *samitee* areas;
2. *Zilla parishades* in non-*samitee* areas (excluding municipalities and municipal corporations);
3. Municipalities in the Andhra region; and
4. The State Education Department in areas such as municipalities and municipal corporations in the Telangana region, where primary education is administered by government.

COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION.—There are two separate Acts on compulsory education in force in the Andhra and Telangana areas of the State. The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920 is in force in the Andhra Area, while the Hyderabad Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1952 is in operation in the Telangana Area. Under these two Acts, the progress of compulsory primary education was not quite satisfactory.

In 1960-61, out of the 47.9 lakhs of the total population of children in the compulsory education age-group 6-11, only 28.2 lakhs, i.e., 58.87 per cent are enrolled in schools. The position is worse in case of girls. There are 10.70 lakhs of girls (of age-group 6-11) enrolled in schools in 1960-61 as against 13.25 lakhs non-attending girls. The annual increase in the enrolment of girls in this age-group during the

¹ In the town municipalities of the Telangana and the Municipal Corporations of Hyderabad primary education is under the administration of the Education Department.

Second Plan period is 0.43 lakhs. The educational survey of 1957 revealed 22,708 primary schools in existence on 31-3-1957 when 27,849 were actually needed. The wastage in case of boys and girls is respectively about 53 and 65 per cent. Thus, in all the three major aspects of compulsory primary education — universality of provision, universality of enrolment and universality of retention — the progress was not to the extent it was desirable.

The State Government has, therefore, drafted a new bill on compulsory primary education. This bill, when passed into an act, will achieve the following:

- 1 Uniformity in regard to the scheme of compulsory primary education throughout the State,

- 2 Expediency and thoroughness in the preparation of enumeration registration of children to be brought under compulsion, for each habitation in the State,

- 3 Effective enforcement as a result of *zilla parishads*, *panchayat* block *samitees* and Education Department (in town municipality areas of Telangana) being made local authorities,

- 4 Quick and effective handling of the prosecution of the defaulting guardians as a result of the *nyaya panchayats* being empowered to try offences committed under their areas of jurisdiction, and

- 5 82.4 per cent enrolment of both—boys and girls—by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan.

The state government has decided to make primary education free and compulsory throughout the State from the beginning of the year 1961-62. The scheduled areas in both the Andhra and Telangana regions will be excluded, for the time being, from the operation of the compulsory education scheme. In this respect, the state government follows the policy laid down by the Government of India. Compulsion will be introduced by stages, i.e., in 1961-62 for the age-group 6-7, in 1962-63 for the age-group 6-8, in 1963-64 for the age-group 6-9, in 1964-65 for the age-group 6-10 and in 1965-66 for the entire age-group 6-11.

PROVISION OF SCHOOLS — The educational survey of 1957 revealed the need of opening 5,141 additional schools to facilitate making primary education universal and compulsory in the age-group 6-11 years. In 1959-60, each of the 235 *samitee* blocks in the State was given a special grant of Rs. 7,500/- to be spent for the construction of primary school buildings supplemented by local contributions upto not less than one-third of the total cost of each work.

TEACHER SUPPLY.—The number of primary teachers to be in available at the end of the Second Plan will be 78,000. Keeping in view the target of 82.4 per cent of enrolment in the age-group 6-11 at the end of the Third Plan period, it is estimated that the number of new teachers required would be 28,000. Under the Scheme for the Relief of Educated Unemployed, 1,140 teachers in 1958-59 and 1,600 in 1959-60 were appointed. Under this scheme, more teachers will be continued to be appointed and the state government is planning to secure its additional need of teacher supply during the Third Plan period. Under the special schemes for women's education, the construction of 20 residential quarters for women teachers were completed in 1959-60 and 250 school mothers were also appointed.

TEACHER TRAINING.—In 1958, the state government had appointed a committee for assessing the teaching personnel required for the Second Plan and in pursuance of the recommendations made by that committee several steps were taken to increase the teacher training facilities at the primary stage in the State. As a result of these steps, the strength of the training schools rose from 5,254 in 1957-58 to 9,864 in 1959-60. The State had 120 training schools for primary teachers in 1959-60. It is estimated that the total number of primary teachers in the State at the end of the Third Five-Year Plan would be 1,06,000. With the training facilities available in the State, at the end of the Second Plan period 58,000 (out of the total 78,000 teachers) will be trained and 31,500 additional teachers will be trained by the end of the Third Plan period. This means that the State would have 84.4 per cent of its total 1,06,000 teachers trained which was regarded satisfactory by the Regional Seminar on the Targets for Primary Education under the Third Five-Year Plan.¹

An interesting feature, perhaps, of the teacher training programme of the Andhra Pradesh State is the provision of six special training schools for adult women which provides a composite course of three years' duration consisting of general education as well as teacher training. These are intended for the benefit of adult women in indigent circumstances, who missed adequate schooling during their early years and desire to rehabilitate themselves as teachers.

BASIC EDUCATION.—In consonance with the policy of the Government of India, the State of Andhra Pradesh has also accepted Basic Education as the pattern of education at the primary stage. The government has a phased programme of converting traditional schools into basic type and opening new basic schools. For instance, in

¹ Vide. Ministry of Education's Note on Training of Primary Teachers, circulated in the Regional Seminar (May-June, 1960).

1959-60, 419 non-Basic schools were converted into basic type and 81 new Basic schools were also opened. In March 1960, the position in respect of Basic education in the State was as under:

TABLE 49
Basic Education in Andhra Pradesh, 1960*

	Institutions	Strength	Teachers
Junior			
Basic: Boys	2,182	2,28,136	7,155
Girls	7	1,011	40
Senior			
Basic: Boys	276	68,560	2,492
Girls	2	418	20
Basic College for Men	1	65	4
Basic Training Schools			
Men	48	5,205	326
Women	11	604	52

Andhra Pradesh State Administration Report. Education Department, 1959-60, Part II, Annexure I.

The number of Basic schools is still not satisfactory in the light of the fact that its proportion is only 8.2 in comparison to the primary schools of the non-Basic type. But the state government is determined to push ahead its programme of the conversion of a large number of primary schools into Basic schools and opening up new Basic schools each year.

INSPECTION AND CONTROL. — As stated earlier, the district educational officer is responsible for primary schools in his district also besides the secondary and the special schools. But the duties relating to supervision and control of primary schools are performed by deputy inspectors of schools. The deputy inspectors' ranges in all the districts of the State have been recently reorganised on the basis of the block as an unit of administration. Each block is provided with one deputy inspector, whose duties are to manage, administer and inspect schools located in his block area. He is assisted by a junior deputy inspector of schools, when the number of primary schools in a block area exceeds sixty.

In the Andhra Area, the number of aided primary schools was very large. In 1955-56, it constituted 48.8 per cent of the total number of primary schools in the State. A scheme of taking over the aided primary schools in the Andhra area was begun in 1956-57 and it was completed in all the districts of that area by 1959-60. This has considerably helped the government in the administration and control of primary education. For quick and efficient discharge of inspection work, all the district educational officers and inspectresses of girls' schools in Andhra and Telangana areas were supplied with jeep cars.

SUPPLY OF MIDDAY MEALS — One of the schemes, taken up by the state government as an experimental measure to step up enrolment and improve retention of enrolled children in primary schools is the supply of *free midday meals*. The scheme was introduced in 1959-60 in 20 selected *samitee* blocks, one in each district in the State. The scheme is now extended to 254 *samitee* blocks during 1960-61. The government gives 12 n.p. grant per meal per child but the total number of children for the purpose of such grant should not be more than 50 per cent of the enrolment. The government also provides, in case of children of scheduled classes, free supply of slates, books and clothing also.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION — The Andhra Area and the Telangana Area of the State show some differences in achievement in secondary education, as they formerly belonged to separate states which stood at different levels of progress in education at the time of the State reorganisation in 1956.

When the present State was formed in 1953, the private bodies played a much larger role in secondary education than the government. Out of the total 714 secondary schools in the State at that time, district boards conducted 44.7 per cent of middle schools and 69.6 per cent of high schools, municipalities 22.3 per cent of middle schools and 7.6 per cent of high schools, private bodies 20.0 per cent of middle schools and 18.7 per cent of high schools, whereas government conducted only 13.1 per cent of middle schools and 4 per cent of high schools. The position was not much changed in 1956, when the State was again reorganised. Government conducted only 15.1 per cent of total number of middle schools and 4.5 per cent of total number of high schools in the State and the remaining 84.9 per cent of middle schools and 95.5 per cent of high schools were conducted by the non-government agencies. The position was altogether different in the old Hyderabad State, whose Telangana area was merged in Andhra Pradesh State. It may be noticed that 64.5 per cent of total middle schools and 55.5 per cent

of total high schools in the Hyderabad State were conducted by government. Even at present, the State managed secondary schools are considerable in the Telangana area.

The two areas also differed in the nomenclature of school classes at the secondary stage in 1956. In the Andhra area, at the middle school stage, classes of secondary schools were called Forms I, II and III and of higher elementary schools were named as Standards VI, VII and VIII whereas in the Hyderabad State these were called Classes V, VI and VII. At the high school stage, the nomenclature used in the two states were respectively Forms IV, V, VI, and Classes VIII, IX and X. Of course in both the states the duration of secondary stage was of six years. The provision of multi-purpose schools was larger in the Telangana area than in the Andhra area.

Co-education was very much practised in the Andhra area in comparison to the Hyderabad area. In 1955-56, in Andhra 60.5 per cent of the total number of girls in secondary schools were in boys' schools whereas in the Hyderabad State this percentage was only 16.8¹.

In respect of trained teachers at the secondary stage, the Andhra area was far ahead of the Hyderabad area in 1956. The percentage of trained secondary teachers in the Andhra State was 87.7, whereas it was 47.9 in the Hyderabad State. The minima and maxima of pay scales of trained graduate teachers in government high schools also differed significantly in the two areas. In Andhra the pay-scale was Rs. 85-175, the maximum being reached in 13 years; in Hyderabad State, the pay-scale was Rs. 154-275 with 16 years required to reach the maximum.

These are some of the aspects of the administration of secondary education in which the old Andhra State and the composite Hyderabad State differed markedly, and hence when the present Andhra Pradesh was formed with the merger of the Telangana area, the same differences and disparity in progress prevailed in the two areas of the State. During the last four years, the state government has earnestly strove for bridging the gulf between the educational progress in the Andhra and Telangana areas of the State.

THE PRESENT POSITION. — We will now briefly outline the present position in the administration of secondary education in the State.

School Provision. — In 1959-60, there were 468 middle schools (boys 364 and girls 104) and 1,040 high/higher secondary schools (boys 926 and girls 114) in the State. It is estimated that the number of middle schools (including senior basic schools) would rise to 1,041 in 1960-61 at the end of the second plan period. The number of high/

higher secondary schools is also expected to be 1,099 (high schools 959, higher secondary schools 92 and multi-purpose schools 48) by the end of the second plan period.

Enrolment. — In 1959-60, there were 6,94,082 pupils studying in secondary schools of which the middle school stage (including senior basic) accounted for 1,65,626 (23.9 per cent) and the high/higher secondary stage for 5,28,456 (76.1 per cent). The figure for girls was 92,451 which included 418 girls in senior basic, 25,853 in middle schools and 66,180 in the high/higher secondary schools. The proportion of girls to the total enrolment at the secondary stage was 13.3.

Grant-in-aid Code. — As stated earlier, the role of the private enterprise at the secondary stage is considerable, grant-in-aid codes have been devised to determine and regulate grant-in-aid to private institutions in the State. In the two areas of the State, two different codes are in operation. The Telangana area is regulated by the Hyderabad State Revised Grant-in-Aid Rules of 1952, whereas the grant-in-aid code of the Andhra Pradesh Education Department is in force in the Andhra area. The Hyderabad Grant-in-aid Code for secondary schools, applicable to aided schools in the Telangana Area, provides for the following:

1. Grants on the basis of two-thirds of the salaries (including dearness allowance and house rent allowance) of the staff at government scales of pay, minus income worked out on the basis of government scale of fees,¹ with the prescribed concessions for freeships and half-freeships;

2. Fixation of grants on the income and expenditure of the previous academic year;

3. The ceiling grants for new schools applying for grants to be Rs. 25,000 for high schools (including middle and primary sections), Rs. 12,000 for middle schools (including primary sections) and Rs. 3,000 for primary schools;

4. The existing schools to continue to receive grants-in-aid under the present rate of ceilings i.e., Rs. 50,000, Rs. 25,000 and Rs. 5,000 respectively;

5. Freeships and half-freeships conceded to be taken into account not exceeding at the rates prescribed for government schools;

¹ Vide *Revised Grant-in-Aid Rules* of 1952, Government of Hyderabad.

The scales of fees for the purpose of calculation of fee income is Re. 0.75, Re. 1, Rs. 1.25, Rs. 1.50, Rs. 1.75 and Rs. 2.00 for Classes V, VI, VII, VIII, IX and X respectively in Hyderabad and Secunderabad cities. The corresponding rates for schools in district are Re. 0.37, Re. 0.50, Re. 0.75, Re. 1.00, and Rs. 1.25 for classes V, VI, VII, VIII, IX and X respectively. Private managements are given discretion to charge fees at higher rates to meet the deficit. In such cases, however, Government has power if necessary to prescribe ceilings for the rates of school fees.

6. The minimum strength of any class to be 25. If the average strength of classes at any stage falls below this, the proportionate reduction in the grant to be effected. Concession in case of girls' schools may, however, be permitted in special cases;

7. Any cost incurred by an institution in respect of salary of a teacher sent for training not taken into account for computation of the grant.

8. Power vested in the State Government to apply a general uniform cut in grants-in-aid if sufficient funds are not available to meet the full amount of the grants as worked out under the rules.

The Grants-in-Aid Code of the Andhra Pradesh Education Department provides Teaching grants to recognised aided secondary schools on the following basis and under the below-mentioned conditions:

1. Grants on the basis of (i) two-thirds of the approved net cost for the preceding financial year without taking into account the expenditure on the payment of dearness allowance over the income from tuition fees reckoned at standard rates, and (ii) one-half of the approved expenditure on the payment of dearness allowance or the actual deficit calculated.

2. In case of aided secondary schools which introduce the bifurcated courses (with the specific sanction of Government for admission to a scheme of special aid in that behalf), a separate grant on the basis of (i) three-fourths of the net approved expenditure on running the diversified course and (ii) two-thirds in case of teaching practices, for a period of the first five years subject to the maximum teaching grant of Rs. 4,000, Rs. 2,500 Rs. 2,100 and Rs. 1,450 payable respectively for engineering, agriculture, secretarial and other courses, provided that for purposes of arriving at the approved recurring expenditure such expenditure incurred other than on staff to be restricted to Rs. 300 only for the engineering course, Rs. 800 only for the agriculture course and Rs. 60 only for the secretarial course.

3. A grant equal to (i) half the expenditure incurred by the management on scholarships and fee remissions, if any, upto a limit of ten per cent of the fee income reckoned at standard rates for ten months, and (ii) the loss in fee income on account of the award of all the fee concessions granted under the Andhra Educational Rules;

4. An average daily attendance of 45 pupils in the previous year in Forms I to III in the case of middle schools or in Forms IV to VI in case of high schools (in special cases, the rule may be relaxed by the D.P.I.);

5. The number of school meetings should be at least 180 school days or on such number of school days as may be prescribed by the D.P.I.;

6. The scale of pay adopted for the teaching and the non-teaching staff not to be less than those adopted for corresponding categories of staff in the schools under local bodies.

Grants are also sanctioned, under the rules of the Grant-in-aid Code, towards the rent of buildings to be used as hostels. Such grants do not exceed one-half of the net expenditure on the rent or the actual deficit whichever is less after deducting the rent due from the inmates of the hostel.

Building grants are also provided to secondary schools, provided they satisfy certain conditions, on the basis of fifty per cent of the total cost with a ceiling at Rs. 35,000. Grants are also provided to aided schools for furniture, library books and appliances. Such grants do not exceed one-half of the total cost of the equipment subject to a maximum of Rs. 5,000. In case of secondary schools in which bifurcated course or courses of studies have been introduced, a non-recurring grant equal to three-fourths of the cost of the equipment purchased within the first two years of the introduction of the course or courses subject to the maximum of Rs. 7,350 for the engineering course and Rs. 5,700 for each of the other courses, provided the grant disbursed to the school is not more than half the maximum limit prescribed.

It would thus be seen that, though the secondary schools in both the Andhra area and the Telangana area receive their maintenance grant almost on equal basis, conditions and provision for grants differ in several details. The formulation of an integrated Grant-in-aid Code for the State as a whole is receiving considerable attention of the State Department of Education.

Teachers and Training Facilities. — In 1959-60, at the secondary stage, there were 27,530 teachers of which 20,782 were in high/higher secondary schools, the rest being in schools of the middle school level. The number of women teachers was 3,813 which was 13·8 per cent of the total strength of teachers at this stage. The number of untrained teachers is about 1,850 at the middle school stage and 4,400 at the secondary stage. The proportion of untrained teachers is higher in the Telangana area than in the Andhra area. There are 9 training colleges for graduate teachers, whose annual out-turn of trained teachers is about six hundred.

Course. — Two types of secondary courses are prevalent in the Andhra and Telangana areas of the State. There is an eleven year course in the Andhra area culminating in the S.S.L.C. Examination with a 12 year course in multi-purpose and higher secondary schools; whereas in the Telangana Area there is an eleven year H.S.C. course and also a twelve year course for multi-purpose and higher secondary schools. The H.S.C. Examination for schools in the Telangana area is distinguished from the S.S.L.C. Examination of the Andhra area in the provision of elective subjects. The former provides electives, whereas the latter does not. The scheme for integrating secondary courses

of the Andhra and Telangana Area is being worked out and it is expected to provide a uniform secondary course throughout the State from 1962.

Inspection and Control. — The administrative set-up at the district level has already been described at the district level earlier¹. The district educational officer inspects and controls all secondary schools in the district. There are special inspecting officers attached to the D.P.I.'s Office for supervising, guiding and inspecting subject-teaching in higher secondary and multi-purpose schools. The inspectresses of girls' schools inspect and control girls' secondary schools and training schools in the State. Physical education in secondary schools is being supervised by the special inspectorate for physical education.

Recent Developments. — During the second plan period, several important developments have taken place in secondary education in the State. In 1955-56, there were no higher secondary schools; in the course of the second plan period as many as 92 such schools have come into existence. The number of multi-purpose schools has also increased from 39 in 1955-56 to 48 now. Considerable financial aid is being provided to aided schools for building, furniture and equipment. For instance, 67 local body high schools were given grants at Rs. 30,000 each for constructing laboratory blocks. A provision of Rs. 5.93 lakhs is made for being disbursed to aided schools as grants for building, furniture and equipment in 1960-61. The scheme of payment of stipends for girl students in X and XI classes that has been in operation is being extended to cover 3,000 girls more. Considering the meagre financial resources of the local bodies and the difficulties experienced by them in sharing the expenditure in implementing schemes under the Second Plan, the local body schools are being given 100 per cent grant on non-recurring items relating to the plan schemes from 1959-60. Enhanced grants are also given on similar account to schools under private managements. A State Educational and Vocational Bureau has also been started to train counsellors and guidance officers for the upgraded high schools. The pay-scales of teachers in both the Andhra area and the Telangana area are put on a uniform basis on the recommendation of the Pay Committee. The pay-scales for the under-graduate and graduate trained teachers are now Rs. 45-120 and Rs. 90-200 respectively. An important reform that is envisaged for the secondary schools of the Telangana area is to reclassify them by status and to assess the staff requirements under all categories with reference to the Andhra Educational Rules from 1960-61. An Examination Unit is also proposed to be set-up at Hyderabad.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

STATE UNIVERSITIES. — There are three universities in the State, one in the Telangana Area and the other two in the Andhra Area. The three universities in order of their year of establishment are: Osmania University, Hyderabad (1918), Andhra University, Waltair (1926) and Shree Venkateswara University, Tirupati (1954). All the three universities are of affiliating-cum-teaching type.

INSTITUTIONS AND ENROLMENT. — During 1959-60, there were 63 colleges for general education (including university colleges) of which 7 were for girls. The enrolment in these colleges was 43,035 whereof 2,793 were in girls' colleges. The number of teachers in the colleges was 2,747. The average number of students per teacher in a boys' college was 16 and in a girls' college 12. On the whole, the teacher-student ratio in the colleges for general education was 1:15.

THREE-YEAR DEGREE COURSE — The most important reform, during the second plan period, in the field of university education was the introduction of the three-year degree course. All the colleges in the State have adopted this new pattern and necessary facilities for their change-over are being provided. The expenditure in this regard is being shared between the Central and the state governments equally in respect of government colleges and in the ratio of 50:25:25 in respect of the non-government colleges. Government provided Rs. 32.94 lakhs under this scheme in 1959-60.

STATE GRANTS. — The Grant-in-Aid Code of the Andhra Pradesh Education Department (1957) provides grant-in-aid to private colleges teaching grants which are not to exceed: (1) two-thirds of the approved net cost for the preceding financial year without taking into account the expenditure on the payment of dearness allowance, i.e., two-thirds of the excess of the approved recurring expenditure other than that incurred on the payment of dearness allowance over the income from tuition fees reckoned at the standard rate, and (2) one-half of the approved expenditure on the payment of dearness allowance.¹ In addition to the above grants, the management of the private colleges are also entitled to the following.

1. Scholarships and Fee Remission Grant upto a limit of 10 per cent of the fee income reckoned at standard rates;
2. Hostel Rent on the basis of one-half of the net expenditure on the rent of the hostel buildings;
3. Building Grant to the First Grade and Second Grade Colleges and Training Colleges on the basis of 50 per cent of the total cost (Maximum grant for First Grade, and Training Colleges Rs. 75,000 and for Second Grade Colleges Rs. 50,000);

¹ Rule 31.

4, Furniture-Equipment Grants at the rate of 50 per cent of the total cost of the equipment subject to the maximum of Rs. 10,000.

The state government has also given the following amount as grants, upto the end of 1959-60, to the three universities in the State for implementing their development schemes:

TABLE 50
Grants to Universities, Andhra Pradesh, 1959-60

University	Amount
Osmania ..	Rs. 33.55 lakhs
Andhra ..	Rs. 21.00 lakhs
Shri Venkateswara ..	Rs. 29.00 lakhs

In 1960-61, further grants of Rs. 6.5 lakhs, Rs. 1 lakh and Rs. 3 lakhs are proposed to be given to the Osmania, Andhra and Sri Venkateswara universities respectively.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

According to the 1951 census, out of the total 3,12,60,133 population, there were 28,03,773 males and 9,52,399 females that were literates. The percentage of literacy was 12.3 — 17.8 for males and 6.1 for females. In the Andhra Area, 19.3 per cent males and 7.8 per cents females were literates; the corresponding figures for the Telangana Area were 14.9 and 3.6 only. In order to reduce the high percentage of illiteracy among its people, the state government has launched a scheme for social education. The scheme has two important aspects: (i) liquidation of illiteracy among adults and (ii) improving the knowledge and the education of the neo-literates. For improving literacy, four months' courses are conducted by adult education centres. In 1959-60, the number of adult education centres in the Andhra area was 1,484 and the adults under instruction in them were 29,634. These centres are supplied with continuation reading materials, newspapers and periodicals to facilitate neo-literates to improve their knowledge. An amount of Rs. 1.63 lakhs was spent on these centres in 1959-60 and 4,684 certificates were awarded to the successful participants of the adult education courses.

There is one government training school in the State at Patamata in Krishna District for the training of teachers in methods of teaching adults. In 1959-60, as many as 240 teachers underwent such training. A remuneration of Rs. 12 plus Rs. 4 to the trained teachers and Rs. 8 plus Rs. 4 to the untrained teachers is paid and a bonus at the rate of Re. 1 per literate turned out is also paid to teachers of adult education classes.

There are several voluntary organisations that conduct adult literacy classes. Municipal corporations also undertake such activities. For instance, in 1959-60 the municipal corporation of Hyderabad conducted literacy classes in six schools and ten social education centres.

Some prominent features of the administration of social education in the State are: the passing of the Andhra Pradesh Public Library Act in 1960, the organisation of a net-work of village libraries, the setting up of social education exhibition stalls during the health week celebrations, organisation of camps of citizenship training for teachers, and the organisation of training courses for social education workers in which a good number of students reading in high schools, colleges and persons working in schools and colleges and those connected with social service participate.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — Technical institutions like engineering colleges, polytechnics, and the industrial training institutes that were under the administrative control of three independent Heads of Departments in the erstwhile Andhra State were brought under the control of one department, which was in existence in the erstwhile Hyderabad State and was designated as the Department of Technical Education and Training. This Department for the whole State of Andhra Pradesh started functioning from 5th June 1957 with the Director of Technical Education as the Head of the Department.

FUNCTIONS. — The Director of Technical Education has advisory, administrative and executive functions. He keeps close liaison with the All-India Council for Technical Education. He has to bring before the State Board of Technical Education and Training all policy matters concerning the development of technical education in Andhra Pradesh. He has to play a very important role in regard to the correct formulation of the five-year plans for the development of technical education in the State, taking into consideration the views of the All-India Council for Technical Education and the State Board of Technical Education. That is his main function at the degree and diploma levels.

He has to play a similar role in regard to the development of facilities at the craftsmen level. He is a member of the National Council for Training in Vocational Trades set-up by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India which is a body analogous to the All-India Council for Technical Education. The Director of Technical Education has to place for discussion the current and future plans of development of facilities at the craftsmen level in the State in the National Council and also represent before it

the views of the state government and has to bring the Council's views and recommendations before the State Council for Training in Vocational Trades and also bring up before it problems concerning vocational training in the State.

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP. — The organisational set-up at the headquarters of the Directorate of Technical Education in Hyderabad is as under:

1. Director of Technical Education.
2. A Deputy Director of Technical Education, who is in charge of establishment, accounts, scholarships and over-all supervision of the Department excluding industrial training institutes.
3. A Deputy Director of Training in charge of all matters relating to the train-Orientation Scheme, Evening Classes for Industrial Workers, etc.
4. Two Inspectors of Training and one Assistant Inspector of Training, who are responsible for the inspection of the methods of training etc. in the institutions at certificate level.
5. An Assistant Director of Training (Accounts and Purchases), who is expected to inspect the stores and stores accounts of the institutions at periodical intervals and also supervise the work relating to the procurement of equipment etc., at headquarters.
6. Two Assistant Directors of Technical Education, one of whom is in charge of the Examination Section including the work connected with the State Board of Technical Education and Training and the other is in charge of planning and development relating to all institutions.

INSTITUTIONS AND INTAKE. — At the end of the First Five-Year Plan, there were 2 engineering degree colleges (Andhra area only), 4 polytechnics (2 in Andhra area, and 2, in Telangana Area) and 5 industrial training institutes for certificate courses. (3, in Andhra Area and 2, in the Telangana Area). The intake of these institutions was respectively 190, 460 and 1,112. During the second plan period an appreciable development has taken place in this respect. One regional engineering college with an intake of 250 was established in the Telangana area. New courses were added to the two engineering colleges in the Andhra Area with an increase of 80 in intake. At the diploma level, the number of polytechnics rose to 16 (10 Andhra, 6 Telangana) with an intake of 2,370. Two mining institutions, one each in Andhra and Telangana areas, were established with an enrolment provision of 80. Four polytechnics were expanded providing for an additional intake of 370. Three industrial training institutes conducted certificate courses for 728 students. With the expansion of the existing training institutes, the intake at the certificate level is estimated to rise to 4,192 at the end of the Second Plan period.

Besides the above technical institutions, 2 music and dance colleges/schools were established in the state during the Second Plan period.

Recently, three new types of technical schools — called junior technical schools — have come to be located in the State at the instance of the Indian Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. These schools have a two-fold objective (1) to provide diversification of educational opportunities at the post-middle stage, and (2) to impart such training as would enable the students to enter industry either as workers or apprentices after completing their courses in technical schools. The duration of the course is three years with a pass in eighth class as a minimum educational qualification for admission.

FINANCE

FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR EDUCATION — The state government spends at present about 15.4 crores of rupees on education which works out to be 8.67 per cent of the total revenue expenditure of the State. This percentage may not appear favourable, but the State has been steadily increasing its allotment to education within the limits of its financial resources. This can be seen from the following budget provisions for education by the state government: Rs. 14.40 crores (1955-56), Rs. 14.74 crores (1956-57); Rs. 12.04 crores (1958-59), Rs. 11.71 crores (1959-60), and Rs. 15.40 crores (1960-61). This trend is also evident in the increasing financial outlay for education in the State's five-year plans: Rs. 261.00 lakhs (First Plan), Rs. 970.83 lakhs (Second Plan), and Rs. 2,100.00 lakhs (Third Plan). It would thus be seen that the financial outlay for education has increased about 8 times in the Third Plan. This is a happy development for the State, even though a provision of Rs. 21 crores for education forms only 7 per cent of the total outlay for the State's Third Plan.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL FINANCE — In the budgetary provision of Rs. 15,40,16,000, for education for the year 1960-61, 43.98 per cent is allotted to primary education, 21.47 per cent to secondary education, 10.33 per cent to university education, 0.12 per cent to social education, and 1.86 per cent to miscellaneous branches. It would thus be seen that primary education is receiving the lion's share of the State's income. This is in keeping with the recent trend in financing primary education. Even in the financial outlay of the State's Second Five-Year Plan, the allotment for primary education was Rs. 454.53 lakhs, i.e., 46.7 per cent. In the Third Plan, it is proposed to allot Rs. 13 crores out of the total plan provision of Rs. 21 crores for general education to primary education. The distribution of financial provision to primary, secondary, uni-

versity and the miscellaneous fields in the second and third plans would also give the reader an idea of the weightage given to these branches of education.

TABLE 51

**Percentage of Distribution of Funds to Different Branches of Education
Under Five-Year Plans, Andhra Pradesh**

Branch of Education	<i>Second Plan</i>	<i>Third Plan</i>
Primary Education ..	46.7 p.c.	61.94 p.c.
Secondary Education ...	25.8 p.c.	23.80 p.c.
University Education ...	16.6 p.c.	9.50 p.c.
Miscellaneous General Education	10.9 p.c.	4.76 p.c.

ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING A CHILD.—According to 1956-57 statistics, on an average the annual cost of educating a pupil in a primary school was Rs. 25.1, in a secondary school Rs. 71.2, and in an arts and science college Rs. 228.5. The average annual cost *per capita* (of population) was Rs. 4.3.

Of the total expenditure on recognised institutions, the state government met 62.3 per cent, while the contribution from the local boards, fees, endowments and other sources was 13.2, 14.5, 3.4 and 6.6 per cent respectively.

DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT GRANT.—The following statistics for the year 1960-61 would give the reader an idea of the distribution of government grant to different agencies of education:

TABLE 52

Distribution of Grant to Different Agencies, Andhra Pradesh, 1960-61

Agency	Amount
1. Zilla Parishad in respect of erstwhile District Board Schools transferred to Zilla Parishads	Rs. 66,00,000
2. Panchayat Samitees	Rs. 95,06,800
3. Universities	Rs. 83,92,600
4. Degree Colleges	Rs. 17,67,100
5. Professional Colleges	Rs. 47,800
6. Aided Primary Schools	Rs. 2,18,90,500
7. Secondary Schools	Rs. 79,21,000
Total	Rs. 5,61,25,800

FIVE-YEAR PLANS

The achievements of the State under the Second Plan period are considerable both in the general education and the technical education. The progress achieved by the state during the Second Plan period has already been discussed earlier.¹ The achievements in the area of general education can be seen from the following two tables:

TABLE 53

**Physical Targets and Achievements (General Education) Under the
Second Plan, Andhra Pradesh**

Item.	Position in 1955-56	Targets Programed	Targets achieved.	Position in 1960-61
1	2	3	4	5
A. Institutions.				
1. <i>Primary Schools.</i>				
(i) Total	28,538	2,795	4,990	33,528,
(ii) Junior Basic.	685	2,595	1,930	2,615
2. <i>Middle Schools.</i>	281	230	760	1 041
(including Senior Basic schools)				
3. <i>High/Higher Secondary Schools.</i>				
(i) High Schools	687	40	272	959
(ii) Higher Secondary Schools	—	30	92	92
(iii) Multipurpose Schools.	39	10	9	48
4. <i>Colleges for General Education.</i>				
(i) Intermediate Colleges.	17	—	13	4
(ii) Degree Colleges.	37	—	25	62
5. <i>Training Institutions</i>				
(i) Training Schools.	93	2	44	137
(ii) Training Colleges.	8	—	—	9
B. Enrolment				
(i) Classes I to V	23,59,394	3,92,000	4,56,997	28,16,391
(ii) Classes VI to VIII	3,08,807	1,04,550	47,193	3,56,000
(iii) Classes IX to XI	1,6 ,451	34,500	4,549	1,86,000

¹ *Supra.* pp. 317-18.

TABLE 54
EDUCATION EXPENDITURE, ANDHRA PRADESH

Group	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	Total (Rs. in lakhs)	Original provi- sion for 1956-61
Andhra Region							
I. Elementary Education	4.07	16.28	65.59	105.27	73.93	265.14	339.58
II. Secondary Education	13.84	9.06	31.21	66.02	22.23	142.46	158.64
III. University Education	0.90	15.34	30.96	39.08	18.54	104.82	60.31
IV. Other Edn.al Schemes	1.38	7.43	13.81	12.30	13.80	48.72	52.05
Total	20.19	48.11	141.57	222.67	128.60	561.14	610.58
Telangana Region							
I. Elementary Education	2.60	8.70	37.21	69.86	71.02	189.39	182.39
II. Secondary Education	0.94	10.84	26.68	39.27	38.68	116.41	113.96
III. University Education	4.21	8.41	21.14	15.15	7.98	56.89	59.75
IV. Other Edn.al Schemes	—	5.54	10.68	12.06	18.72	47.00	76.45
Total	7.75	33.49	95.71	136.34	136.40	409.69	432.55
Grand Total	27.94	81.60	237.28	359.01	265.00	970.83	1,043.13

BACKGROUND

INTRODUCTION.—The State of Assam had undergone four administrative changes since her annexation to the East India Company at the treaty of Yandabo with King Hpagyidoo of Burma in February 1826. Assam then formed a part of the Bēṅgāl Presidency and was placed under an agent of the governor-general in the North East Frontier. In 1874, Assam was separated from the Bengal Presidency and was placed under a chief commissioner. In October 1905, East Bengal and Assam formed a new province under a lieutenant-governor. In 1912, Assam was separated from East Bengal when the two Bengals were united into a separate province.

THE FIRST PERIOD (1826-1874)—From 1826 to 1874 educational institutions in Assam were under the direct supervision of the General Committee of Public Instruction in Calcutta through its local committees in the province. Soon after the renewal of the charter granted to the East India Company in 1833, Colonel Jenkins, the agent of the governor-general in the North East Frontier, was directed by the Government of Bengal to report on the conditions of education prevalent in Assam. Accordingly, Mr. Jenkins submitted a report to the governor-general asking his permission to open schools at Goalpara, Gauhati, Darrang, Nowgong and Bishnath, each having a European officer. As a result of this note, a seminary was established at Gauhati in 1835 by the General Committee of Public Instruction for implementing Lord William Bentinck's Resolution of 1835 favouring the creation of the modern educational system for the cultivation of western sciences and literatures under the control of government.

The General Committee of Public Instruction, founded in 1823 in Calcutta under the chairmanship of Mr. Harrington, was replaced by the Council of Education established in April 1842 under the chairmanship of Mr. Bird. This machinery for the control and supervision of education in the Bengal Presidency was replaced by the Department of Public Instruction in January 1855 with Mr. Gordon Young, I.C.S. as its first director of public instruction. The Government of Bengal controlled and supervised schools in Assam through the agencies of these educational machineries till its separation in 1874 as a new province. In 1871 the districts of Lakhimpur, Sibsagar,

Darrang, Nowgong, Goalpara, and the Garo hills were placed under an inspector of schools for the North-East division, and Sylhet, Cachar, and the Khasi and Jaintia hills were placed under a separate inspector of schools for the South-East division. Thus there were two inspectors of schools in Assam when she was under the Bengal Presidency.

SECOND PERIOD (1874-1905).— With the separation of Assam from the Bengal Presidency in 1874 the Department of Education was created with Dr. C. A. Martin LL.D. as the inspector of schools. He was, however, directed to assume the functions of the Director of Public Instruction. He was assisted by seven deputy inspectors and eight sub-inspectors. Towards the close of 1874-75, two deputy inspectors and four sub-inspectors were added to the staff. The inspector was placed on European service and belonged to the Bengal cadre. Mr. James Wilson, an inspector of schools, took charge of the Department of Education on the 30th January, 1892 as the Director of Public Instruction. He seems to be the first officer of the Education Department to hold this post in Assam. During 1891-92, there were four deputy inspectors and twenty-four sub-inspectors in the Education Department of Assam. There were no separate inspectors of schools in Assam, and the Director of Public Instruction used to inspect schools in addition to his administrative duties. He was the only officer of the Indian Educational Service in the province.

THIRD PERIOD (1905-1912).— With the amalgamation of East Bengal and Assam on the 15th October 1905 as a new province, Mr. N. L. Halward officiated as the D.P.I. till he was succeeded by Mr. H. Sharp as the permanent D.P.I. on the 16th February, 1906. In 1906, one officer of the Indian Educational Service was appointed in Assam.

During 1905-1906 each subdivision in Assam had a deputy inspector, who was aided by sub-inspectors. Officers of these two cadres were government servants, who received their pay from the Department of Education. But they were under the dual control of the Department of Education as well as the chairmen of local boards. In 1907, the post of an assistant director of public instruction was created. In 1908-1909, an inspectress of schools for the province of East Bengal and Assam was appointed and a proposal for the appointment of a second inspectress and an assistant inspectress was submitted. During 1910-1911, two inspectresses and two assistant inspectresses were appointed by the Government of East Bengal and Assam. One inspectress was placed in charge of Chittagong and Surma Valley divisions and the other inspectress was put in charge of Dacca, Rajshahi, Assam Valley division, and Khasi and Jaintia hills.

FOURTH PERIOD (1912-1947).— After the separation of Assam from East Bengal in 1912, Mr. R. Cunningham was appointed as the Director of Public Instruction. Dur-

ing 1912-1913, the Director of Public Instruction had under him five members of Indian Educational Service. Of these, two were inspectors—one for upper Assam and the other for the Surma Valley and the hill districts. There was an inspectress of schools for the whole of Assam, but the post was kept in abeyance since the retirement of the incumbent in December 1923. Owing to the pressure of heavy work, the post was revived on 12th October, 1940.

During 1912-1913, there was one assistant inspector of schools in Assam. Next year, another assistant inspector of schools in the Provincial Educational Service was added to the staff of the Department of Education. One assistant inspector was placed in charge of Assam Valley and the other in charge of Surma Valley, Khasi and Jaintia hills. In 1913-1914, there was an assistant inspectress of schools in the Provincial Educational Service for Assam. The Annual Report of the D.P.I. for 1917-1918 mentions the appointment of an assistant inspector of schools for Muslim education. During 1926-1927, the two posts of assistant inspectors, kept in abeyance for sometime, were revived. Since the revival of these two posts, it was felt necessary to create such a post for Sanskrit institutions. The D.P.I. in his Annual Report for 1927-1928 recommended the appointment of an assistant inspector for Sanskrit Education. A year later, he further recommended the appointment of one additional assistant inspector for each division.

During 1912-1913, there were twenty-two deputy inspectors, one for each division. This officer exercised jurisdiction over middle English schools, middle vernacular schools and elementary schools in his circle. He was also to bring to the notice of the D.P.I. cases of negligence on the part of the local boards in enforcing regulations of the Education Department. The Quinquennial Report of the Government of Assam for 1917-1922 discusses the relationship of this officer with the chairman of the local board:

The deputy inspector must concede to the chairman his authority and not resent its exercise. The chairman must allow the deputy inspector the fullest possible liberty consistent with the public interest within the range of the duties entrusted to him and if he seeks the deputy-inspector's advice, he must not flout it.

As a result of Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, a Ministry of Education was created in Assam as in other Indian provinces in 1921. Since then the Minister of Education formulates the educational policy of the State and the D.P.I. is relegated to the secondary position. Before the creation of the Ministry of Education, the D.P.I. had the power to be present in the Legislative Council to represent his department. He was replaced by the Minister of Education in March 1921. The situation was not pleasing to the British D.P.I. and Sir Henry Sharp in his Quinquennial Review for 1917-1922 remarks:

In the succeeding period the process has been arrested. Powers formerly granted have been withdrawn — notably in the matter of finance and mainly as a consequence of the financial powers granted to the Legislative Council and to the local boards. At the same time the authority of the Director has been diminished by the transfer of the initiative in educational matters to the Minister for Education and the legislative council. Generally speaking the advisory character of the duties of the Director and the Inspectors and Deputy Inspectors has been emphasised at the expense of the executive. It does not follow that their position is impaired or that adequate opportunities of influencing the course of educational events will be denied to them, if they can adapt themselves to the changed conditions.

The subordinate position of the D.P.I. is also evident from the remark made by the Minister of Education in the Assam Legislative Assembly session for August-September, 1937. The relevant text runs: "I am not to follow what the Director of Public Instruction is supposed to have said." Next to the Minister of Education is the Secretary, Department of Education. The D.P.I. holds the third rank in the Department.

Gradually with the expansion of education in the State, the D.P.I.'s inspectorate staff proved to be inadequate. In the financial year 1928-29 as well as in the following year, the D.P.I. stressed the necessity for the creation of the post of an assistant director of public instruction for Muslim Education. This was created in the financial year for 1937-38. Three years later in 1940, the post of an assistant director of public instruction was created. But both these posts were held by the same officer. Five years later in 1945, the post for the Assistant Director for Sanskrit Education was created. The Directorate has undergone further expansion during the post-independence period, which will be discussed later.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION.— Having traced the growth and development of the machinery at Shillong, the capital of Assam, for the control and supervision of education, it is the purpose now to describe the spread of elementary education in Assam and the local machinery for its control in collaboration with the subordinate educational officers, the deputy commissioners and other lesser grade civil officers of local areas.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.— Primary education in Assam was inaugurated by the Government of Bengal with the introduction of Sir George Campbell's scheme. In 1872, the condition of primary education was not satisfactory in Assam. In Lakhimpur, *bapas* or spiritual teachers used to move from village to village instructing the children of the *khampti* community in reading and writing. As a result of their efforts, there was some literacy amongst the *khamptis*. In Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong,

Darrang, and Kamrup, Assamese children were taught reading, writing and arithmetic by the senior members in the family. Some times children from the neighbouring families attended the family school. There were no organised primary schools in these districts. In the district of Sylhet, there were few indigenous schools imparting instruction in 3 R's. Such was the condition of primary education in Assam, when the Education Department of the Bengal Presidency undertook the responsibility for the spread of primary education among the masses of Assam. On the 30th September, 1872 Sir George Campbell issued an order from Calcutta charging the magistrates and collectors with the responsibility of controlling education within their jurisdictions in consultation with the District Committees of Public Instruction.

At first the people looked upon government interference in the affairs of the education of their children with suspicion which gradually subsided when the villagers extended their willing co-operation by forming committees for the management of primary schools. The movement had its beginning in Sylhet, wherefrom it gradually extended to the whole of Assam. In each district of the plains in the Assam Valley, a committee of public instruction was formed with official and non-official members appointed by the government. The deputy commissioner presided over the meetings of the committee. All the government schools were placed under the direct control and supervision of the district committees which controlled and managed the affairs of the schools in strict conformity with the regulations of the Department of Education. The district committee of public instruction was merged in the general district committee and with the introduction of the local rates regulation in 1880, the school sub-committee was constituted which distributed the allotments for primary education sanctioned by the district committee under several sub-heads. The sub-committees used to refer the budget allotments to the inspector of schools for his approval. On his approval, the budget was submitted to the chief commissioner for his sanction. When this was done, the school sub-committee used to spend the amount on primary education according to the rules mentioned in the Circular No. II dated the 30th June 1876. This sub-committee with the deputy commissioner as its chairman was not authorised to make grants to the primary schools in the hilly areas which were under the control of Christian missionaries and were receiving grants from the provincial government. Schools of all grades in the district were inspected by deputy commissioners and assistant commissioners. The members of the committee also used to visit all schools in the district once in a month.

LOCAL BOARDS.— During the later part of 1882, local boards were established in all the sub-divisions in Assam and the powers of the district board at the headquarters

were transferred to the local boards with full powers over education within their circles. The powers were as follows: the granting of aids to all grades of schools from the high schools to the primary schools — upper and lower forms, the management of third grade normal schools that prepared teachers for primary schools, management of police schools meant for the education of the children of policemen in the fundamental tools of knowledge, the supervision of boarding houses attached to high schools, and the proper care of school buildings and the maintenance of discipline in government schools. The members of the local boards were *ex-officio* visitors of schools within their jurisdiction.

Though the local boards could make grants to high schools in the beginning, yet they were directed from 1st April, 1892 to restrict their aids strictly to middle and primary schools. From the Annual Report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1897-98, it is evident that there were 19 local boards in Assam. Of these the local boards of Mangaldai, Tezpur, Nowgong and Golaghat did not appoint sub-committees on education. At the general meetings of the boards, educational problems were discussed. Rule No. 18, Section I, Chapter VIII of the Educational Manual directed that each local board should appoint a sub-committee for an efficient discussion of educational problems for at least once in a month. All the local boards disregarded this regulation of the government.

With the exception of Nowgong, all local boards in Assam were subdivisional and district boards. Assam Local Self Government Act of 1915 held the local boards responsible for the establishment, maintenance and management of primary and middle vernacular schools within their jurisdiction, and to award stipends and scholarships to the deserving pupils. In December 1920, they were given wider powers on the eve of the introduction of self-government in the country. Accordingly the local boards were relieved from the financial control of the Department of Public Instruction. Thus, they became financially independent bodies. They enjoyed wider powers which, according to the D.P.I. as expressed in his Quinquennial Report for 1917-1922, are regrettable. Their powers are described as follows:

1. To maintain middle vernacular schools;
2. Though allowed to aid and maintain middle English schools, in reality they are debarred to do so;
3. They are not allowed to maintain technical or industrial schools without the approval of the government;
4. They derive their income from local rates and certain minor heads of revenue which cannot be enhanced or decreased by them;

5. They administer the expenditure of allotments made over to them by the government for specific purposes;

6. They are not allowed to charge fees from pupils in their vernacular schools and are not allowed to grant aids to such schools;

7. They are allowed full freedom in the matter of the school administration the granting of holidays and vacations;

8. Though the education officers act as advisers to the local boards, in reality, the Department of Education has no executive authority over the boards, and

9. New rules of the boards debar the deputy inspectors of schools from the membership of their school committees.

The local boards were at liberty to accept or reject the suggestions of the divisional inspectors. When rejected, the suggestions were referred to the D.P.I. who in his turn used to bring them to the notice of the government for final decision. Though the inspectors were bound to examine annually the registers and accounts of the local boards, in reality, they could not do so. Even the D.P.I. had no control in this regard. With the adoption of the practice of appointing non-officials as members, it became difficult for the deputy inspectors to make their suggestions effective to the boards.

MUNICIPALITIES — Indian municipalities were charged with educational responsibilities with their establishment. Schools run by the boards within the municipal areas were handed over to the municipalities during 1917-1922. This being done, the municipalities were entrusted with the task of securing the expansion of primary education in the urban areas and the local boards with the responsibility of spreading primary education amongst the children of the rural population. It was expected that the municipalities will endeavour to spend 3 per cent of its total income for the spread of schools and the granting of scholarships. The chairmen of the municipalities were expected to extend their willing cooperation to the officers of the Department of Education. From the D.P.I.'s Annual Report for the year 1923-24, it is evident that as a result of the framing of new rules the municipalities were reluctant to accept suggestions of the officers of the Department of Education. In fact the relationship between the Education Department and the local bodies deteriorated with the growth of democracy. The relevant text from the Annual Report for 1928-1930 is—

The Hail & Committee have supported the views which have so frequently been urged by the Department. They advise that the responsibilities of ministers have been far reduced by devolution on local bodies, that the control of primary education has thus been largely taken out of the Minister's hands, with unfortunate results and, generally, that the relations between provincial governments and local bodies demand further considerations and adjustment. Not only the local boards but also

the municipalities were reluctant to receive advice from the officers of the education department. They took no advantage of the Assam Primary Education Act passed in 1926. The annual report of the D.P.I. for 1930-1931 mentions that no municipal board applied the Primary Education Act within its area. The D.P.I. makes the following observations in his annual report on public instruction for 1939-40. The relation between the Local Bodies and the Department was not very cordial, and no better relation can be expected in the present dual system of control of vernacular education. To remedy this defect the D.P.I. in his above report suggests the taking over of the charge of vernacular education from the control of the local bodies into the hands of the Minister of Education. The relevant text runs: I can only report that I have said many times that it is high time that the control of vernacular education should be taken over from the Local Bodies into the hands of the Minister of Education.

In spite of the lack of co-ordination between the local bodies and the Department of Education and the keeping of the Primary Education Act of 1926 in abeyance, primary education both for the boys and the girls made some progress during the pre-independence period. This fact is abundantly clear from the statistical records in the D.P.I.'s reports.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The local committees under the deputy commissioner were in charge of secondary schools in Assam. With the institution of district committees, they controlled and administered secondary schools through the sub-committees under the presidentship of the district commissioner in strict conformity with the rules of the Department of Education. The members of the district committees were all *ex-officio* members who took keen interest in all grades of institutions from the elementary to the high schools. From the D.P.I.'s annual reports, it is evident that the district school committees only supervised the secondary schools. The Chief Commissioner of Assam in his orders dated the 2nd May 1879 authorised the inspector of schools to have full control and management over all secondary schools in Assam. It has been stressed before how powers enjoyed by the district boards were transferred to the local boards since their creation during the later part of 1882. With the transference of powers, the local boards were held responsible for awarding grant to high schools within their jurisdiction. It is evident from the Quinquennial Report for 1892-1897 that though these boards granted aids to secondary schools yet they had no proper control over them.

The D.P.I.'s Annual Report for 1907-1908 records the reconstitution of the managing committee of high schools during the said period. This was done in strict conformity with the new affiliation regulations framed by the Calcutta University. It is

evident from the Annual Report of 1908-1909 that all government high schools in Assam constituted managing committees. Each committee consisted of the headmaster, two representatives of teachers and another teacher elected by the staff for each high school. At present, two teachers are elected by the staff in addition to the headmaster.

The first secondary school was established at Gauhati by the General Committee of Public Instruction on the 15th June, 1835. It was known as Gauhati Seminary, which had a chequered career. In May 1866, an intermediate section was opened in the Gauhati Seminary and as a result of poor performance of the examinees in the intermediate examinations, the College Section was abolished in 1876 by Colonel Keatinge, the first Chief Commissioner of Assam. The Gauhati Seminary, however, provided the nucleus of higher educational system in Assam. Out of it were developed the Cotton College, the Earle Law College, the Jorhat Normal School, the Jalukbari Survey School, and the Department of Muhammadan Education.

Gradually high schools were founded in various districts of Assam. Some vernacular and middle English schools were converted into high schools under the direct control of government. Briefly speaking, the high schools were gradually developing out of small institutions under private or missionary control when the government took charge of them under its direct control. A bird's eye review of the rise and growth of high schools in Assam will corroborate the above statement.

A private vernacular school was started at Mangaldai in 1830 which became a local board aided school and finally it was converted into a high school under private management in 1903 and started receiving government aid in 1905. The school was provincialised in 1914. The Tejpur Zila school was founded in the 40's of the last century, which became a high school in 1886. In 1888, the American Baptist Mission founded an English school at Sibsagar which became the second English school in Assam. In 1838, the Sylhet government school was started. It was transferred to the Christian Mission of Sylhet in 1858 only to be re-transferred to the government for its control and management in 1864. The Habiganj school, founded in 1843 became an M.E. school 20 years later, and was converted into an aided high school in 1863. It became a government high school in 1914. The Silchar High Grammar School founded as a Christian Mission school became a government institution in 1865 as the Cachar Zila School. Nowgong High School was founded by its headmaster in 1865. Karimganj Middle English School was started by local lawyers and officers of the government in 1894. Twenty years later, it was converted into a high school. In 1875 a school was founded at

Jorhat and in 1879 the government high school at Goalpara was transferred to Dhubri. The Barpeta school was converted into a high school in 1879. In the same year middle English schools were founded at North Lakhimpur, Hailakandi, and Maulvi Bazar. Gradually, a few more institutions were established. Dibrugarh Girls' High school started in 1885, Dibrugarh Boys' High School in 1888, and Shillong High School in 1891. In 1878, there were ten high schools in Assam. Of these, nine were under government control and one was under private management. From the General Report on Public Instruction in Assam for 1900-1901, it is evident that there were 20 high schools in 1899-1900. Of these, ten were government schools, five were aided schools and the rest were unaided schools. Since the beginning of the present century, high schools for both the sexes have been making satisfactory progress. On the 1st January 1914, Government took charge of the aided high schools at Golaghat, Mangaldai, Barpeta, Goalpara and Karimganj. A secondary school for European and Anglo-Indian boys was founded at Shillong in February 1916. It is known as St. Edmund's School. Eventually it has been raised to the status of a college. Pine Mount School at Shillong is the only government school for the education of Europeans and Eurasians. In the fiscal year 1905-1906, its enrolment fell from 32 to 21. The annual expenditure for the school was Rs. 6,043.

COLLEGE EDUCATION

It has been mentioned before that first arts classes were instituted in the Gauhati Seminary in May 1866 which received affiliation from the Calcutta University. The college classes were, however, abolished ten years later by Colonel Keatinge, the Chief Commissioner of Assam for continued poor results in the university examinations. In 1880 one thousand, nine hundred and nineteen inhabitants petitioned to Sir S. Bayley for the re-establishment of intermediate classes in the Gauhati Seminary. Instead of founding the college classes, a scholarship of Rs. 20 per month was granted to every Assamese scholar intending to prosecute his studies in a college in Calcutta after passing the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University. In 1892, Murarichand College was established at Sylhet by a local zemindar. In 1901, a government college was founded at Gauhati and was named Cotton College after the name of the then Chief Commissioner.

Thus in the beginning of the present century, there were two colleges — Cotton College, Gauhati and Murarichand College, Sylhet. They were affiliated to the Calcutta University, which laid down in 1907-1908 that each college should have its own managing committee. Accordingly, the D.P.I. set up managing committees for the two colleges

with the following constitution: (1) the Divisional Commissioner as the president; (2) the principal of the college as the secretary; and (3) the senior professor of the college as a member. It is evident from the D.P.I.'s Annual Report of 1939-1940 that the governing body of the Cotton College at Gauhati was reconstituted with the Director of Public Instruction as its *ex-officio* president instead of the Commissioner of the Assam Valley Division. The governing body of the colleges underwent further modifications with their rapid expansions.

Upto 1932, there were three colleges including an oriental college catering to the needs of the citizens of the province. Upto 1948 there were eighteen liberal arts colleges in Assam. Cotton College is the only government college in the State after the transference of Sylhet to East Pakistan. In 1914 Earle Law College was started at Gauhati which is now the University Law College.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

TRIBAL EDUCATION. — During the pre-independence days tribal education was the responsibility of the government, although it was largely managed by the missionary bodies. They carried on their activities amongst the tribal peoples living in the hills like Khasi Hills, Jaintia and Naga Hills, and Lushai Hills. The General Report on Public Instruction in Assam for the year 1900-1901 reads as follows:

Aided Mission schools are under the management of the several Mission Bodies.....the Welsh Mission in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills had the largest share in the increase, both in schools and pupils. The schools under missionary management are doing useful work in the Khasi, Jaintia, and the Garo Hills. Of the seven missionary societies at work in the province, the Welsh Mission in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills and the American Missions in the Naga and the Garo hills receive grants-in-aid from provincial revenues, the remaining societies receive aid from the Local Boards concerned. The Garo Mission also receives a grant-in-aid from the Local Board, Goalpara, for the schools situated near the borders of Goalpara.

The General Report on Public Instruction in Assam for the year 1940-1941 tells us that "The Welsh Presbyterian Mission was gradually withdrawing from the field of education, but the various other missions and private bodies continue their educational activities as before." After independence, the schools in the tribal areas were gradually brought under state management and government founded schools under its direct control. Now there is a proposal to hand over the control of the tribal schools to the charge of the district-councils in the hill districts, as the control of the tribal schools will be entrusted to local bodies, though the Government of Assam will grant them financial aids as before. Nagaland has its own educational system after its separation from Assam Government.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION. — Physical education of the high school and middle english boys recieved due attention of the government. It is evident from the D.P.I.'s Annual Report of 1897-1898 that physical exercises formed a part of regular curriculum in all government high schools and middle schools. During the post-war period following the First World War, physical education received careful attention in Assam. The Calcutta University authorities following the recommendation of Sadler Commission in this regard gave their careful attention to the physical welfare of high school students and issued a circular to all headmasters advising them to provide for regular medical inspection of their pupils. This circular engaged the attention of the authorities of the Department of Education of Assam. The government appointed physical training instructors in the Assam Valley and the Surma Valley divisions and they did splendid work in this regard to the satisfaction of the D.P.I. Sports were also encouraged. Efforts were made to maintain discipline amongst young adolescents of high schools by keeping them aloof from politics.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.—The problem of the supply of trained teachers for the high schools also engaged the attention of the Government of Assam and graduate teachers were deputed to Dacca Training College in East Bengal till B.T. degree course was opened at St. Edmund's College and St. Mary's College at Shillong. The Government founded a training college at Jorhat in 1957. Prior to the founding of this college, the University of Gauhati opened its B.T. Department on the 10th January, 1949.

INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION. — With the advent of freedom, the administrative staff of the Department of Education has been considerably strengthened. In 1956-57, the D.P.I.'s Office consisted of the D.P.I., an additional D.P.I., two Deputy Directors (one for general education and the other for technical education). Thus the Director of Public Instruction was assisted by the educational officers of the status of Additional, Deputy and Assistant Directors. The latest information is that the posts of deputy directors of public instruction are now abolished. At present there are six posts of Assistant Directors of Public Instruction in addition to the post of an Additional Director of Public Instruction to help the D.P.I. in running the administration of his Department. Of these six posts, two are for general education, one for women's education replacing the post for the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, one post for National Cadet Corps, another post is for Arts, and finally there is a post for Basic Education.

In addition to the aforesaid posts, there are six circle inspectors, six assistant inspectors, two special officers (one for Basic Education and the other for Social Education),

twenty-four posts of deputy inspectors of schools, seven posts of additional deputy inspectors of schools, thirty six sub-inspectors of schools, and ninety-four assistant sub-inspectors of schools. There are also four inspectors of physical training in the State.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The most important event during the post-independence period is the creation of the Primary Education Board in Shillong with jurisdiction over regional education boards. It has a full-time secretary and the Minister of Education is its president. The Board has full control and jurisdiction over all primary schools in the State. Thus it has ended dual control over elementary education.

In 1954, the Primary Education Board was replaced by a new body, viz., the State Basic Education Board. It was created by the Basic Education Act of 1954. The Minister of Education is the chairman of the Board and the Director of Public Instruction is its vice-chairman. The Board advises the Department of Education on all matters regarding the formulation of policies, the expansion and improvement of primary schools, and their conversion into Basic institutions.

According to the provision of the Basic Education Act of 1954, middle vernacular schools have been brought under the direct control of the sub-divisional school boards. These schools were under the control of local boards till November 1954. In the autonomous Hill Districts, primary education is controlled by the District Council and the Department of Education through its subordinate inspecting staff. The primary schools include at present five grades, viz., A, B, I, II and III. Compulsory primary education was introduced in the State for the children between the ages of six and eleven in selected areas in 1947-48. It exists at present in thirteen towns and 4,405 villages.¹ Attendance of children of primary school age is strictly enforced through attendance officers. The government is now converting the primary and the middle vernacular schools into Junior and Senior Basic schools respectively.

SOCIAL EDUCATION CENTRES. — In 1948, the Government of Assam organised social education centres. During 1956-57, there were 694 social education centres. Of these 648 were for men and 46 for women. These social centres are under the Department of Education and aim at spreading education amongst the illiterate adults who receive instruction in 3 R's and useful crafts and vocations. They thus learn to discharge civic duties as responsible citizens of their country. Some of the social education centres are also maintained by the Community Projects Department.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — The secondary education in the State is divided into two stages, viz., middle and high, each of three years' duration. Under the schemes for

the reorganisation of secondary education, 15 high schools were taken up for the development into multi-purpose schools and 4 into higher secondary schools. In 1956-57, there were as many as 1,851 secondary schools. Of these, 8.1 per cent were managed by the government, 27.2 by district boards, 0.3 by municipal boards, and the remaining by private bodies — 56.6 aided and 7.8 unaided. The total direct expenditure on secondary education for the entire State during that year was Rs. 1,56,68,087. On an average, the annual cost of educating a child at the secondary stage was Rs. 51.3.

The percentage of trained teachers in this State is perhaps the lowest in the entire country. During 1956-57, only 23.3 per cent of secondary teachers was trained—28.0 per cent for the middle stage and 18.6 for the high school stage.

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE EDUCATION. — In 1956 there were 26 liberal arts colleges in Assam. During the post-independence period there has been a remarkable progress not only in the field of liberal arts education but also in professional education. In 1948, an *Ayurvedic* college, a medical college, a veterinary college and an agricultural college were started by the government of Assam under its direct control. In 1955, an engineering college was started at Chandmari in the suburb of Gauhati. Subsequently the college was shifted to its present campus at Jalukbari. A second engineering college at Jorhat and a second medical college at Jalukbari have been started by the Government under its direct control and management. These professional colleges are controlled and managed by the government through its appropriate departments. Liberal arts colleges are expected to be reorganised by the introduction of the proposed three years' degree course in 1962.

The aforesaid colleges are affiliated to the University of Gauhati, founded by the Government of Assam on the 26th January 1948. The Governor of the State is its *ex-officio* chancellor. He presides over the annual court-meeting, generally held in the month of October of every year. The Governor also presides over the convocation. The affiliated colleges have their representations in the court, in the faculty of arts, and in the academic council which meet once in a year. The University enjoys autonomy though it receives grants from the State Government. The expenditure of the University is checked by state auditors. The Government can modify the constitution of the University by bringing amendment clauses to it in the Legislative Assembly. The Department of Education has no control over university affairs except that the D.P.I. is a member of the Executive Committee of the University. The University grants affiliation to colleges of all categories whether under private or government management. There is a dual control over the colleges. The University controls the colleges by granting affiliation, conducting annual examinations, conferring degrees upon the successful candidates and by

prescribing syllabi for the degree examinations. The Government controls private colleges through the award of grant-in-aid. The D.P.I. also visits the government and private colleges from time to time. The University also makes periodical inspection of colleges by appointing specialists from time to time. The Government proposes to abolish dual control over the high schools by entrusting the recently created Board of High School Education with powers of prescribing syllabuses and conducting the matriculation examination. But dual control over the liberal arts and professional colleges will continue to remain, unless these are granted charters to conduct their own examinations and confer degrees. But there is no such movement in India as yet.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — Technical education had its beginning in Assam towards the later part of the 19th century when the Williamson Artisan School was started at Jorhat and the Williamson Survey Class was attached to the Sibsagar High School. These were supported from tuition fees and the interest from the Williamson Endowment Fund. The artisan school was under the direct management of the assistant commissioner. The school was later placed under an executive committee according to the order of the Chief Commissioner of Assam dated 2nd July 1881. Students from the Sibsagar High School and middle vernacular schools of the locality were admitted into the Williamson Survey Class. An artisan school was also founded at Dibrugarh from the Williamson Fund. The artisan school at Dibrugarh offered instruction in mathematics, land surveying, engineering, drawing and practical work for over three years. Provision was also made for giving further training in practical mechanical subjects to those possessed of aptitude for these subjects after they succeeded in passing the three years' certificate course, conducted by the authorities of the artisan school. Dibrugarh Railway Workshop also maintained a mechanical apprenticeship class. There was also a mechanical apprenticeship class at the workshops of the Tezpur-Balipara Tramway Company.

In the beginning of the present century, provision was made for six scholarships tenable at the Bengal Engineering College at Sibpur. It is evident from the "General Report on Public Instruction in East Bengal and Assam" for 1905-06, that there was no technical school in Assam except the artisan classes and workshop schools mentioned above. Industrial schools were started at a later date as is evident from the D.P.I.'s Annual Report for 1918-19, where the transference of the industrial schools to the charge of the newly created department of industries has been mentioned. In the D.P.I.'s Annual Report for 1956-57 the following engineering institutes and junior technical schools are mentioned: (1) His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales Institute of Engineering and Technology at Jorhat; (2) Assam Engineering Institute of Gauhati; (3) Junior Technical School

at Tezpur; and (4) Junior Technical School at Silchar, The present position of technical and professional schools for the year 1956-57 will be evident from the following table:

TABLE 55

Technical Education in Assam, 1956-57

Institutions	No. of schools	Enrolment	Expenditure in rupees
Training schools	34	1947	915,271
Engineering and Survey schools	2	663	351,660
Technical and Industrial Schools	20	1116	556,508
Commercial Schools	18	2057	117,550
Agriculture School	1	102	47,238
School of Forestry	1	22	38,483
Polytechnic School	1	51	60,679

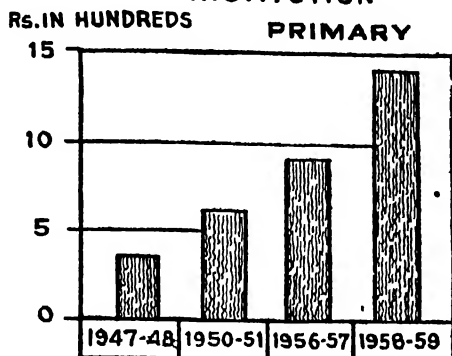
All technical schools and the two engineering colleges were brought under the Department of Technical Education, which was created in 1958 — The Deputy Director of Public Instruction for Technical Education was upgraded as the Director of Technical Education, who took charge of the new department.

FIVE-YEAR PLANS. — During the first plan period, the Government of Assam undertook 17 development schemes for the expansion of primary education amongst the masses, removal of illiteracy from the adult through the community centres, expansion of Basic education, establishment of post-graduate Basic training colleges for the supply of trained teachers for the Basic training schools. During the second plan period, the salary scales for the officers and teachers of the Department of Education were revised, primary schools are being converted into Basic schools, high schools are being reorganised by the introduction of higher secondary and multi-purpose schools. During the year 1956-57, fifteen high schools were converted into multi-purpose schools. Of these eight are government high schools and the rest are aided or unaided high schools. During the same period, three government high schools and one aided high school were converted into higher secondary schools. For the supply of properly qualified teachers for the new types of high schools, the government is now deputing high school teachers with B.T. degree to the University of Gauhati to attend the sixth year classes to appear at the M.A. examinations in different subjects.

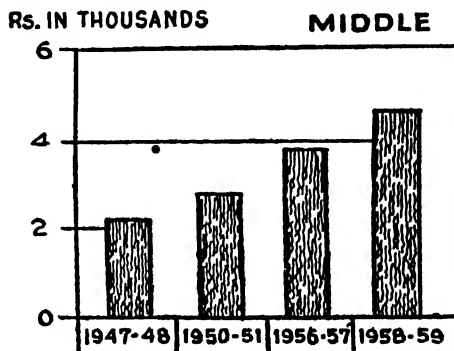
CONCLUSION. — A brief review of the progress of education in Assam reveals that the Department of Education has been expanding steadily since 1874 with the growth

DIRECT EXPENDITURE PER INSTITUTION AND PER STUDENT ASSAM

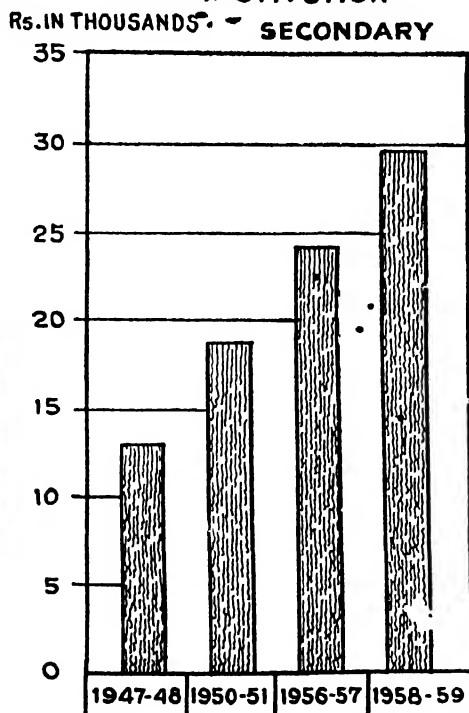
A. EXPENDITURE PER INSTITUTION



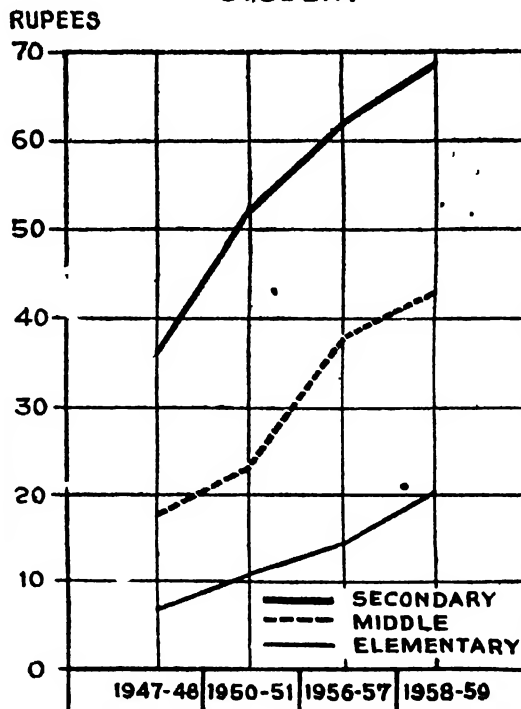
A. EXPENDITURE PER INSTITUTION



A. EXPENDITURE PER INSTITUTION



B. EXPENDITURE PER STUDENT



of education in all grades. In the initial stage, education was under the direct control of the Department of Education. With the granting of home rule, democracy was introduced in 1921 when the municipalities and local boards enjoyed full freedom in the management of middle english schools, middle vernacular schools, and elementary schools — upper and lower. As democracy in education did not work well in securing the expansion of these types of schools, the Government of Assam during the post-independence period brought these schools under its direct control by passing the primary and the Basic education acts of 1948 and 1954. It may not be out of place to mention here that the civil officers no longer visit the secondary schools and the middle schools though the deputy commissioner may do so even now if he so desires. The cost of education is largely borne by the State.

BACKGROUND

During the early British regime Bihar with Orissa formed a part of the province of Bengal and its educational administration was combined with that of that province. From the 1st of April, 1912, Bihar and Orissa were separated from Bengal and were formed into an independent province.

With the birth of this new province, an independent educational administrative machinery was created. At the headquarters, a director of public instruction was appointed as the head of the Education Department and all the institutions situated in the State were placed under his charge. In 1915, the post of an assistant director was created to assist him in the discharge of his duties. The new province had four administrative divisions and each division had an inspector of schools in the I.E.S. cadre, who had also an assistant inspector to assist him. At the district level, there was a deputy inspector of schools assisted by a number of sub-inspectors of schools, assistant sub-inspectors and inspecting *pandits*. Later on when the Tihut Division came into being, another inspectorate was created for that division.

Subsequently the post of the assistant inspector, who used to be in charge of *guru* training and middle schools, was considered superfluous and was abolished. The post of the deputy inspector of schools was raised to the rank of a gazetted post and its officer was designated as the district inspector of schools. The posts of assistant sub-inspectors and inspecting *pandits* were abolished and those of sub-inspectors of schools were put on the cadre of the Subordinate Educational Service. There was only one inspectress of schools to look after girls' education for the entire province. There were some inspecting *maulvis* to supervise the *maktabs* and *madradas*, but no such provision was made for the supervision of Sanskrit *pathshalas* and *tols*. It was in 1916 that the post of an assistant superintendent of Sanskrit studies was created, and later the posts of the superintendents of Sanskrit and Islamic studies were also sanctioned.

To begin with, educational organisation, rules and regulations were the same as were prevalent in Bengal. Colleges and high schools of the State were under the academic control of the Calcutta University till 1917, when the teaching-cum-affiliating University of Patna was created.

With the introduction of diarchy as a result of the Government of India Act of 1919 education became a 'transferred' subject, in charge of a minister, responsible to the provincial legislature. But this transfer of control was more supposed than real, in the sense that the key-posts in the educational administration were held by I.E.S. officers who were beyond the control of the minister. Besides, he had to depend on the allotment provided to him in the provincial budget, which was a 'reserved' subject.

With the ever increasing number of schools in the State the volume of work of district inspectors of schools increased tremendously and therefore to relieve them, the posts of deputy inspectors of schools in the upper division of the S.E.S. were created in the outlying sub-divisions, the Sadar Sub-divisions being placed directly in charge of the district inspectors of schools. Deputy inspectors were posted in the Sadar Sub-division much later.

In the year 1930, to deal with expansion and improvement of primary and girls' education, a special officer for 'primary and girls' education was appointed at the Directorate, who with the introduction of Basic education, was later designated as Special Officer of Primary and Basic Education.

Under the Government of India Act of 1935 the Minister of Education got full control over education in the province, but in the same year Orissa was constituted into a separate province and Bihar was left with the other four divisions.

After independence, Bihar like other provinces became a State under the Indian Union. In 1950 the Education Department was re-organised. Provision was made for the appointment of a separate deputy director for each of the important branches of education—primary, secondary, social, girls' and physical education. The last post was, however, subsequently abolished. The posts of superintendents of Sanskrit and Islamic studies were also abolished and an assistant director, in charge of Sanskrit and Islamic studies, was appointed. The post of Special Officer of Primary Education was combined with that of the Deputy Secretary of Education and a separate Deputy Director of Basic Education and an Assistant Director for Primary Education were appointed.

It may be noted that recruitment to the I.E.S. cadre was stopped in 1930 and now all the posts in the Education Department are filled up by members of the Bihar Educational Service.

PRESENT ADMINISTRATION AT HEADQUARTERS

EDUCATION MINISTER AND SECRETARIES OF EDUCATION. — The Education Minister, who is a member of the Council of Ministers, exercises full control over the Education Department. He is responsible for formulating educational policy and its implementation.

There is also a Deputy Minister to assist him. His secretariat staff consists of the secretary, generally of the I.A.S. cadre, an additional secretary, a deputy secretary and three under-secretaries, who are generally from the Provincial Civil Service.

The chief function of the Secretary to Government in Education Department is to issue orders and circulars on behalf of the government. He is the channel of correspondence between the Minister and the D.P.I. He is also the adviser to the Minister in matters of policy making and its effective execution. He examines the implications of the proposal sent by the D.P.I. to government.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT: *Its Organisation.* — It is rather difficult to give a dependable picture of educational administration as the educational machinery is constantly in a state of flux. With the ever-increasing need of the country as reflected in the five-year plans, new posts are being created and thus the picture changes from time to time.

The D.P.I. is in charge of the day-to-day educational administration of the State. His duties include both administration and inspection. He is entitled to inspect all educational institutions under his control. He sanctions allotments under different heads to subordinate officers. He disburses grants to various institutions and submits educational budget to the government through the Secretary. He is also responsible for the preparation of annual reports and returns of educational progress in the State. He is the expert adviser to the government in matters educational. He has to study the problems in the field of education and prepare plans of educational development according to the needs of the State.

As already mentioned, the Director is assisted in the discharge of his duties by a number of officers. At present there are the posts of an additional director who is primarily incharge of primary education and of a joint director who is in charge of teacher education in the State. Besides the Deputy Director General, there are eight deputy directors for primary, basic, secondary, social and girls' education, N.C.C., planning and administration, to assist the D.P.I. in their respective spheres. There are three assistant directors for primary education, and one each for secondary, Basic education and youth welfare. The Deputy Director of Planning is assisted by four junior planning officers. There is also an officer in charge of educational statistics, reports and returns.

The offices of the Secretary and the D.P.I. have recently been amalgamated with a view to expediting work. This joint office is divided into various sections corresponding to the different branches of education and their administration.

ADVISORY BODIES. — Among the advisory bodies in the field of education, the first is the 'State Advisory Board of Education,' consisting of members, both official and non-

official. The Minister of Education is its chairman and the D.P.I. its ex-officio secretary. Its functions are to review the educational programmes and progress and advise the Government in matters educational.

The 'Social Education Board' is another such body for social education. The Education Minister is its chairman and the deputy director of social education, its ex-officio secretary. Besides the official members there are 23 other non-official members supposed to be interested in the cause of social education. This board has also a publication wing, which publishes a magazine 'Jan Jiwan' for the neo-literates and produces other literature for them.

The 'Text Book Committee' is another advisory body, which invites books to be prescribed as text-books in the schools of the State. Of late it has also taken up the work of preparation and publication of some text-books. The 'State Board of Audio-Visual Education' is also an advisory body. This board is associated with the Social Education Board.

STATUTORY BODIES

UNIVERSITIES. — Till 1951 there was only one teaching-cum-affiliating university of Patna for the entire State. From 1952, in place of the existing Patna University, two new universities were created: (1) Patna University—a teaching and residential university and (2) Bihar University—a teaching-cum-affiliating university for the entire area of the State except the Patna Municipal area. But as a result of the Bihar Universities Act, 1960 four regional universities, one for each division¹ of the State, have been created in place of the two original universities. These have been organised on teaching-cum-affiliating basis. The Governor of the state is the Chancellor and a non-teacher as the Vice-Chancellor for each university.

THE BIHAR SCHOOL EXAMINATION BOARD. — This statutory body conducts examinations at the end of the secondary education stage—both at the high school level and the higher secondary school level. It prescribes courses of studies for these examinations. It consists of a chairman, the D.P.I., three other members nominated by the state government representing the universities, and a principal of a teachers' training college. The secretary and an assistant secretary carry on the day-to-day administration of the board.

BOARD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. — This board was formerly constituted by a Government Resolution. But through the Bihar High School (Control and Regulation of Administration) Act, 1960, it is now a statutory body. Formerly it had 21 members but the number has been reduced by the Act to 15. The D.P.I. is the president and a Class I officer in the Bihar Educational Services is secretary. The functions of the board are to inspect

high and, higher secondary schools either through government inspectors or inspectors appointed by the board, to grant recognition to high and higher secondary schools or to withdraw such recognition, to distribute annual grants to schools under rules approved by the government, and to hear and decide appeals of teachers.

THE BASIC EDUCATION BOARD. — It was first constituted in 1938 and re-constituted in 1950. It consists of 29 members—both official and non-official—and has the power to organise, inspect, control and superintend Basic education and institutions for teacher-training. It has also been authorised to hold examinations and award certificates. It is the duty of the board to review periodical progress of Basic education and submit report on the progress to the state government.

RELATION BETWEEN THE STATE GOVERNMENT AND THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT WITH UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

Universities are created by an act of the state legislature, which defines the aims and objective of the university and prescribes the limits of its jurisdiction, the constitutions and functions of the various university bodies. The Governor of the State is the Chancellor of the universities, who appoints vice-chancellors and treasurers on the terms and conditions laid down in the act. Recently under the Bihar Universities Act, 1960, four teaching-cum-affiliating universities for the four divisions of the State have been created.¹ General functions and constitution of the university bodies are thus determined by the state government and they are incorporated in the Act. Appointments to the posts of teachers and officers of university have to be made on the basis of the recommendations of the Bihar Public Services' Commission.

In this act the element of election among the teachers for seats in the senate or the syndicate has been substituted by the nomination by the Chancellor or by rotation among the senior teachers. The Secretary to the Government, Education Department, and the D.P.I. are ex-officio members of the senate and the syndicate. The Chief Justice and the Advocate General are members of the senate. Besides, the Directors of Health Services, Industries, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, Bihar, are to be members of the senate if there are medical, engineering, agriculture or veterinary colleges in the university. The State Government sanctions annual grant to the universities. It also sanctions occasional grants for various development schemes of the universities. Grants to colleges under the universities are paid through them.

The universities enjoy full freedom in academic matters. The state government has been empowered to have the account of the universities or any college to be audited and

¹ *Supra.* p. 341.

on receipt of the report, issue such directions as it thinks fit and the university shall have to comply with such directions.

Prior to 1952, the state government maintained some of its own colleges. But after that all the government colleges affiliated to the old Patna University were transferred to the control of the new Patna and Bihar universities along with the services of the teachers and other employees. Government had the power to recall any of its transferred employees. A few colleges established by government after that were only affiliated to the Bihar University. The three government teachers' training colleges, established after the 1951 Act, are not affiliated to any university and the Education Department conducts its own departmental examination for them. But in the Bihar Universities Act, 1960, provision is made that government can not only transfer government colleges to the university but can also withdraw any college already transferred to the university from the maintenance and control of the university. The State Government may at any time constitute a commission to enquire into and report on the working of the universities including the financial position of its colleges and departments, or on any changes to be made in the provisions of the Act of 1960 or on the statutes, ordinances, etc. or on any other matter referred to it by the state government. On the recommendation of this commission, the state government can pass any orders as it thinks fit. Thus under the Universities Act of 1960, the former autonomy of the Patna and Bihar universities has been seriously curtailed.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The main types of secondary schools are high schools, higher secondary schools, and multi-purpose schools. The multi-purpose schools so far are also invariably higher secondary schools with at least one professional group of subjects.

From the management point of view, the secondary schools in the State are of two types—government and private. Government schools are controlled and administered by the state government through its administrative officers. Private schools, which far outnumber government schools, are managed by their own managing committees, the constitution of which is regulated by the Board of Secondary Education. The state government exercises control over them indirectly by granting or withholding recognition, grant-in-aid, inspection by its own officers and by rules and regulations issued from time to time. The state government has also the power to nominate three or four members on the managing committees of these schools. These managing committees consist ordinarily of nine members—two donors, two guardians' representatives, three members nominated by the D.P.I., the headmaster and a teachers' representative.

The Board of Secondary Education is the statutory body which controls secondary

schools. It grants recognition to these schools, can suspend or withdraw recognition, can suspend or dissolve the managing committees, (except those of the schools maintained by religious or linguistic minorities), for inefficiency and mismanagement, can hear appeals of teachers against actions of managing committees and can make rules and regulations regarding management of these schools. Pay scales of teachers of private secondary schools have been fixed by the government and a managing committee is appointed by the government for internal administration. In fact, these managing committees have not much to do, in that most of the things pertaining to these schools are done in accordance with the elaborate rules and regulations laid down in the Education Code for such schools.

All secondary schools are open to inspection by inspecting officers. These officers are also administrative officers of the government schools. They submit their inspection report of private schools to the Board of Secondary Education to acquaint that body with the state of affairs obtaining in these schools, and the Board takes suitable action on the basis of these inspection reports. The administrative and inspecting officers for secondary schools are the regional deputy directors of education, district education officers and the sub-divisional educational officers. The post of the divisional inspector of schools has been converted into that of the regional deputy director of education, who is in overall charge of education in the division. Likewise, the district education officer is the officer in charge of the district. His duties include administration and inspection. He has to see that the schools maintain reasonable efficiency in teaching and discipline and the records and accounts are well maintained. He submits copies of his inspection reports to the Board of Secondary Education for action. As the number of secondary schools has increased very much, the sub-divisional education officers have been given charge of the non-government secondary schools in their sub-divisions. They submit their inspection reports to the district education officer and deal with the routine matters of administration in connection with these schools. The headmaster manages the internal administration of these schools subject to rules and regulations laid down by the Board of Secondary Education. The district inspectress of schools is in charge of non-government girls' high schools under the over all control of the inspectress of schools.

The Bihar School Examination Board conducts the final examination at the end of high or higher secondary stage. It also prescribes the courses of study for these examinations.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Prior to the year 1954 primary education in the State was managed by the state government, local bodies and private managements. The government managed and maintained Basic schools and schools for backward classes. The district board, through local and union boards, and the municipalities managed and maintained their own schools

which are known as Board Managed Schools and gave aids and stipends to other schools, opened and managed by the private enterprise, subject to rules and regulations laid down by government. The education fund of these local authorities consisted of government grant for education, their own contribution plus income from the Education Cess, wherever levied. These local authorities had an education committee of which the local inspecting officer was a member. Payments were made to schools on their bills, countersigned by the deputy inspector of schools in case of middle schools and by sub-inspectors in case of primary schools. In *sadar* municipalities, where compulsory education was introduced, there are a number of attendance officers, whose function is to see that the pupils of compulsory age-group attend the schools.

The programmes to relieve educated unemployment and expansion and improvement of primary education were linked up together and were operated through the agency of the departmental officers and the District Education Council of which the district magistrate was the president and the district inspector the secretary.

Inspecting officers of the Department inspected all schools. Primary schools were under the charge of sub-inspectors of schools, who were posted in a circle which consisted of a *thana* or two according to area and number of schools. Middle schools and non-government schools were in charge of the deputy inspectors of schools who were holding charge of sub-divisions. They had also to supervise the work of the sub-inspectors. From the Second Plan, one deputy inspector is in charge of forty middle schools and thirty-five non-government Basic schools. There are at present 73 deputy inspectors of schools and 808 (including 69 as training and leave reserve) sub-inspectors. The sub-inspectors are now placed in each *Anchal*-cum-Development Block, the bigger ones having more than one sub-inspector. Although the Sub-Inspectors of schools are inspecting officers of girls' primary schools also, there is a deputy inspectress of schools in the out-lying sub-divisions, whose duty includes, inspection, organisation and improvement of female education. Girls' middle schools are in their direct charge. The district inspectress of schools performs this duty in *sadar* sub-divisions, besides supervising the work of deputy inspectress of schools.

With the expansion and improvement of primary education after independence, the state government began to spend a larger sum of money and increased grants were sanctioned to local bodies. For ensuring greater efficiency, the state government thought it desirable to amend the L.S.G. (Local Self-Government) Act regarding the control of primary education. By the Bihar Local Self Government (Amending and Validating) Act of 1954, it modified the existing administrative arrangement for the supervision and control of elementary education to enable the local bodies to ensure efficient management of funds.

A Statutory District Education Fund was created in each district and a government Officer known as 'Superintendent of Education' was appointed to operate the fund. A standing committee known as the District Planning Committee was set up to plan and regulate the expansion of primary education including the location of schools and to prepare a panel of teachers for appointment in recognised primary schools. The district magistrate was its chairman and the district superintendent of education, its ex-officio secretary. The chairman of the district board has the power to appoint and transfer the teachers of board managed schools in consultation with the district superintendent, who has this power in respect of other schools. The appointment of sub-inspectors of schools is now made by the D.P.I. and the chairman has the power to transfer him within the district after consulting the district superintendent. All grants for the expansion and improvement of primary and middle schools are now given on the basis of an annual plan, prepared a year in advance by the Education Planning Committee. Every school has a local managing committee.

The district superintendent of education makes payment of salaries to teachers. He has to maintain a provident fund account and he distributes contingency and library grants to schools and grants to public libraries. He has also to supervise the building programme of schools. The district superintendent of education is assisted by one or more deputy superintendents of education.

Besides the schools maintained or aided by the local bodies, the government maintains its Basic schools. There are 23 deputy superintendents of Basic education in Upper Division of S.E.S. each one in charge of 25 government Basic schools. There is a divisional superintendent of Basic Education in each division to superintend Basic schools. With the funds allotted by the Welfare Department, the government has opened a number of schools for backward communities. Teachers, appointed under the expansion and improvement of Primary schools programme, are treated as employees of the local bodies. The state government also prescribes the curriculum of primary schools.

MISCELLANEOUS EDUCATION

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The provision for pre-primary education is very meagre in the State. There are only five government pre-primary institutions so far. They are attached to Basic schools and are administered by the regular administrative machinery for Basic education. There are a few private pre-primary institutions, which are controlled by their own managements. The state government gives grant to 16 such institutions.

SOCIAL EDUCATION. — As already mentioned there is a deputy director of social education functioning under the D.P.I. He is also the ex-officio secretary of the Social Educa-

tion Board. There is an audio-visual officer in Class II (Junior) with a production unit of audio-visual materials attached to his office. There are four divisional social education organisers in Class II, (B.E.S.) and a social education organiser in each district in Class II (Junior) to look after social education. In every Community Development Block, there are one male and one female social education organisers for organising and supervising social education work. The state government maintains three *jana* colleges for training workers in village up-lift work.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION. — For the supervision and guidance of physical education, there is a deputy superintendent of physical education in the upper division of S.E.S. in all the districts. Government also maintains a college of physical education at Patna. There is a lady superintendent of health and physical education, attached to this college. She also supervises physical education in girls' high schools. The College of Physical Education is under the direct control of the government.

N.C.C. & A.C.C. — Besides, a deputy director of education, who is the administrative Officer, there are three assistant administrative officers (including one lady officer) at the headquarters and four administrative officers, (one at each divisional headquarters in Class II of the Bihar Educational Service). They are in charge of N.C.C. and A.C.C. Supervision of N.C.C. training is made by military officers deputed by the Ministry of Defence and that of A.C.C. training by assistant administrative officer posted at the divisional headquarters.

ORIENTAL EDUCATION. — The administrative control of oriental education is vested in the D.P.I. assisted by two assistant directors, one for Sanskrit education and the other for Islamic studies. They inspect, supervise and disburse grants to the institutions of Oriental learning. Examinations are conducted by the Sanskrit Council and the Madarsa Board, which consist of both official and non-official members. Recently a Sanskrit University has been set up at Darbhanga, to which all Sanskrit colleges will be affiliated. It will also conduct Sanskrit examinations.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — Technical education is in the administrative charge of the Department of Industries and agricultural education is in charge of the Department of Agriculture. Besides the engineering colleges transferred to the management of the universities and affiliated to them, the Department of Industries maintains a number of technical schools, and training centres, under the administrative control of the Director of Industries. There is provision for an agriculture school in each district under the Department of Agriculture.

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

Financing of education in the State is generally shared by the state government, local bodies and the public. In the plan period, the Central Government shouldered either the entire cost or a proportionate expenditure on certain schemes.

In the field of higher education, the universities get a grant from the state government. They also get occasional grants from the University Grants Commission and the state government for this various development schemes. Other sources of income of the universities are: income from tuition, examination and other fees, and endowments or donations from private persons.

In the field of secondary education, the entire cost of government schools is borne by the state government except the expenditure for development schemes where the Central Government shares a certain proportion of expenditure. Tuition fees are the only source of income. For the privately managed schools, the managing committees are expected to meet the expenditure from fees, subscription or donations. Generally, the land, building, furniture and equipments are provided by the managing committees, besides the recurring expenditure. In this they are helped by the state government by various kinds of grants, viz., compensation for loss of fees in case of schedule tribe and schedule caste students, grant for the enhancement of the salary scale of teachers, efficiency grant, science or library grant, etc. In case of older schools, block grant system is still continuing. These grants are calculated on the basis of statements submitted by the schools. There are also a few subsidised high schools, where the government bears the entire cost of running the school minus the income from the fees of the students.

In the field of primary education, the state government bears the entire expenditure on Basic schools. For other schools, the local bodies have to bear the expenditure from their own income, besides government grant for specific purposes from time to time. With increasing grant for the improvement and expansion of primary education, the government posted an officer in each district board to operate its education fund. The Central Government also sanctions liberal grants for the improvement and expansion of primary education. This amount is spent through the agency of the state government.

Out of the total State Budget of 1960-61 amounting to Rs 146 crores and 64 lakhs, education has a share of Rs. 13 crores and 20 lakhs. This does not include the amount provided in P.W.D. and P.H.D. budget for educational buildings. For buildings to be constructed through departmental agency, there is a sum of Rs. 2,22,33,900 provided in the budget. Out of total budget, allotments for different stages of education are as follows:

TABLE 56

Budget on Education, Bihar, 1960-61

Branch	Amount (in Rupees)
University and Higher Education	Rs. 1,28,93,200
Secondary Education	Rs. 1,56,99,100
Primary Education	Rs. 7,19,19,800
Special Education	Rs. 1,16,38,900
Miscellaneous (including administration)	Rs. 1,98,98,220

Total receipt under the head 'education' is Rs. 5,71,70,200, which includes Rs. 5,28,70,600 as contributions and grants from the Central Government. Other items of receipt include fees, sale proceeds of books, income from craft and agriculture products, sale of text-books and contribution from other States for the Hazaribagh Reformatory School. The above does not include the sums spent by the universities, local bodies, and managing committees on the basis of their own income from fees, local subscriptions and donation.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The community development programme in the State is under the administrative charge of the Development Department. In the First Five-Year Plan, officers of the Education Department deputed to the community development blocks were under the administrative control of the Development Department. But in the Second Five-Year Plan, the Education Department has assumed the administrative control of these officers. The community development programme includes opening and running of some primary schools and social education centres. Formerly, there was a social education organiser to look after this, besides the project officer or the block development officer. Now in the re-organised pattern of educational administration, sub-inspectors of schools, according to the number of schools in the block, have been posted in each block, under the immediate control of the Block development officer. They are in charge of the supervision of primary education. The block development officer has also to take an active part in the programme of expansion of education. For the organisation and supervision of social education, there are one male and one female social education organisers in each block.

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC BODIES AND PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN EDUCATION OF THE STATE

Mention has already been made of public bodies like the Basic and Social Education Boards, Board of Secondary Education and School Examination Board and District

Education Planning Committees in relevant sections above. There is a lot of private enterprise in the field of education. A number of colleges and schools (high, middle, primary) or other kinds of educational institutions have been started by private enterprise. All the necessary conditions, including provision of reserve fund, are met by the person or persons concerned. Quite a good number of philanthropic individuals come forward to start or help educational institutions. Government sanctions grants to these institutions, after they are recognised and are in a position to stand on their own legs. These institutions are required to have managing committees of their own, which are constituted according to rules framed by government from time to time. The donor upto a certain amount is generally given a seat on the managing committees and the University or the Education Department nominates a number of members to the managing committees.

These committees have to manage the affairs of the colleges and schools. Appointment and dismissal of teachers have been placed in their hands, but they have to be approved by the university in case of colleges and the inspecting officer in case of the schools. Teachers have the right to appeal against their orders.

There are various public organisations like the different missions, Arya Samaj, Santhal Paharia, Seva Mandal, Harijan Sewak Sangh, etc. which run their denominational institutions with or without government grants. A number of educational institutions are run by trusts or *wakfs* or by philanthropic persons. A few educational institutions are maintained by industrial concerns at Jamshedpur, Dalmianagar, etc. for the children of their employees. The Railway Board also maintains a few high and primary schools.

LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Control and administration of primary educations, as has already been said, lie in the hands of the local bodies. These are district boards and municipal boards or corporations. The district board held direct charge of the middle schools and delegated the control and administration of primary schools to its local boards, in each sub-division and union boards, in rural areas. The municipal boards, cantonment board, etc. looked after middle and primary schools within their areas. The functions of these bodies consisted of appointment, transfer and payment to teachers or grant-in-aid to the managing committees of privately managed primary schools and also to make provision for the building, furniture and other equipments of the schools. There was an education committee in each such local body to deal with matters pertaining to education, subject to its proceedings being approved by the general body of the board. By the L.S.G. (Amending & Validating) Act, 1954, the government appointed its own officers

who were attached to the district boards for operating the education fund. Mention has already been made of this in this chapter, while discussing the organization of primary education.¹ The L.S.G. Act 1954 is not applicable to municipalities and they still have full control over primary education in their areas. The union boards were abolished and the schools under them were taken over by the district boards.

EDUCATION IN THE FIRST TWO FIVE-YEAR PLANS

Efforts have been made in the five-year plans to vitalise and expand education in the State. Details are given below.

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Greater educational facilities have been provided to children of age group 6-11. By the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, it was expected that there would be about 38,000 primary schools with 73,000 teachers and 30 lakh children. About 52.6 per cent of the total number of children of this age-group would have been brought to schools. A pilot project of compulsory primary education for this age-group has been taken up in one block of every district. Certain incentives like reading and writing materials and subsidy for mid-day meals are provided in these areas.

Efforts have also been made to improve the educational facilities for children of age-group 11-13. It is expected that by 1960-61, there would be about 3,800 middle schools with 14,300 teachers providing facilities to about 3,88,000 pupils or 17 per cent children of this age-group.

Government have sanctioned grants for the construction and improvement of the buildings of primary and middle schools. A government girls' middle school has been set up at each divisional headquarters and some quarters for female teachers have been provided in rural areas.

Increased provision has been made for the training of teachers. There are 63 training schools in the State, with facilities for admitting 200 trainees each. The duration of training has been raised to two years. Provision has been made for a short training course for headmasters of middle schools in one senior training school in each division. Twenty-one new training schools were opened in 1959-60 and 17 more are going to be opened in 1960-61 under a scheme sponsored by the Central Government. It is expected that even after making some allowance for a certain amount of wastage, the annual output of trained teachers for primary and middle schools will rise to 8,500.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — There has been a marked emphasis on quality rather than quantity in the field of secondary education. During the First Five-Year Plan, 27 non-government high schools were converted into multi-purpose (higher secondary) schools.

¹ *Supra* p. 345.

During the Second Five-Year Plan, 51 government schools have been upgraded into multi-purpose schools. Besides these 78 schools, 74 non-government schools have also been upgraded into higher secondary schools. Recurring and non-recurring grants have been sanctioned to these schools for the purpose. Twenty five state-subsidised schools were opened in educationally backward areas. By the end of the Second Plan period, 54 government schools will have a guidance teacher each. Provision has also been made for providing a career master in 200 non-government high schools. One hundred and fifty high schools have been given aid for having a physical instructor on the staff. During the Second Plan, 14 schools have been given special grant and 797 schools general science grants, and 184 schools were given grants for improvement of core subjects and 212 schools for the improvement of their library facilities. As already mentioned, sub-divisional education officers have been appointed in each sub-division for the inspection and supervision of private high schools and the posts of district inspectors of schools have been converted into those of district education officers in Class I, Bihar Educational Service, and these officers have been vested with powers formerly exercised by the divisional inspectors of schools.

Increased facilities have been provided for teacher-training. The number of seats in training colleges including women's training college has been increased. There is a provision for short training course in each division for untrained but experienced graduate teachers. There is also some provision for the organisation of seminars of headmasters and assistant teachers of high schools.

UNIVERSITY AND HIGHER EDUCATION. — The main improvement in this field has been an increased number of seats in science classes. At present there are in all 8,924 seats in I.Sc., 1,454 in B.Sc. and 340 at the M.Sc. stage. For this, the universities and various colleges in the State have been given suitable grants. Pre-university and three-year degree courses have already been introduced in the State.

SOCIAL EDUCATION. — Besides the social education centres run with the aid of Education Department, 20 centres on an average in each N.E.S. and C.D. block are financed by the Development Commissioner's Department. There are 300 circulating libraries in the State. The government maintains a state library and there is provision of provincialising 17 district libraries. There is also a provision for grants to the private libraries. There is an audio-visual unit, attached to the School Education Board.

The state government has established 21 youth hostels and has made provision for coaching in sports. Arrangements have also been made for holding regional and local sports festivals. During the plan period the number of units of N.C.C. and A.C.C. has been raised considerably.

INTRODUCTION

The history of Gujarat records the interplay of two factors: (a) the individuality of the Gujaratis expressed through a consciously directed group life; (b) the influence of the culture which, originating with the early Aryans, has maintained the homogeneity of Indian life and the continuity of its traditions for the last three thousand years.¹

The State of Gujarat was formed on 1st May 1960 as a result of the Bombay Reorganisation Act, 1960. Prior to this date it was a part of the greater bilingual Bombay State, from which it has inherited the present administration in education. Gujarat has three components—the old British territory of the former Bombay State consisting chiefly of the five districts of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Panchmahals and Surat, the princely States among which Baroda was the biggest and educationally well-advanced, and Kutch. There is much in common in the administrative set-up of the three components though there is some variation to which reference will be made as and when required.

The State of Gujarat covers an area of 72,137 square miles and has a population of 2,06,21,283 according to 1961 census, which is 4.5 per cent of the population of the Indian Union. This population lives in 243 towns and 18,729 villages spread over 183 *talukas* of the State. The density of population is 225 per square mile. At present the main land of Gujarat consists of 10 districts the Saurashtra consists of 6 districts, and Kutch forms a district by itself.

The new State is situated on the West coast of India between 20.1 and 24.7 degrees North latitude and 68.4 and 74.4 degrees East longitude. To the West of Gujarat is the Arabian sea; to the North-West is the Gulf of Kutch. To the North lie the Kutch and the Mewar deserts, and to the North-East, Mt. Abu. The East is guarded by rough forests rugged in the North with side spurs of the Vindhyas, more open towards the central natural highway from Baroda to Ratlam and southwards again rising and roughening into the northern offshoots from the main range of the Satpudas.

PATTERN OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AT THE STATE LEVEL

The pattern for education in Gujarat does not differ much from that in other Indian States. Until 1921 the Government of India formulated the educational policies for the entire country, published them in the form of resolutions and circulars, and implemented them through the state departments of education which were established throughout India on the same pattern. At present the Minister of Education is in charge of education portfolio and is a member of the State Cabinet. He is assisted by a Secretary, a Deputy Secretary and three Under Secretaries whose offices are situated in the state secretariat at Ahmedabad.

Under the Minister of Education is the Director of Education who is the head of the vast set-up of the administrative machinery of the Education Department. He is assisted by four deputy directors. His headquarters are at Ahmedabad. Among the other state-level officers who work for the Director of Education, there are state inspectors of various branches of education, such as physical education, visual education, drawing and craft, and commerce. An inspectress of girls' schools meant mainly for girls' education at secondary level works under the Director of Education. There is also a Bureau of Vocational Guidance at the state-level. An accounts officer works for the Director of Education and is entrusted with matters pertaining to budget and accounts. There is a separate Directorate for Technical Education under the Minister of education.

At the secretariat-level educational policies are outlined, grants for old and new schemes of development including those of the five-year plans are sanctioned, and the appointments and transfers of G.E.S. Class I and II officers are made. At the departmental level the policies laid down in the secretariat are implemented, grants for the various schemes are distributed and general supervision over the district officers is carried out. Moreover, the Director of Education submits proposals to the government for initiating new policies, new schemes and for paying grants to the various institutions and organisations.

It will be evident from what has been stated that there is dual control at the state-level in the field of education. This diarchy in education entails some delay and duplication of work. Sri Humayun Kabir, once the Educational Adviser to the Government of India, has deprecated this dualism from another point of view in the following words:

In spite of the advice of various commissions and repeated recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education, this system of dual control still persists

under which an expert educationist is placed under a member of a provincial or Indian Administrative Service. In the Decennial Review of Education in India 1937-1947, Sir John Sargent has discussed this question in great detail and nothing need be added to what he has said.¹

The statement of Sir John Sargent referred to above is given below for further elucidation of the point:

It has always struck me as curious that the authorities in India, in the past at any rate, should have shown themselves almost completely impervious to the experience of other countries so far as educational administration is concerned. They have followed a policy which, in my opinion, has often been both extravagant and inefficient and has, I believe, contributed in no small measure to the present unsatisfactory state of affairs in Indian education. They have been satisfied only too often to appoint as D.P.I.s people with little or no administrative experience and to compensate for this have put them under the virtual control of I.C.S. secretaries who have known little and cared less about education. Even D.P.I.s with first-class administrative ability have been subjected to such control. The result has varied between complete frustration on the one hand and the waste of the highly-paid officer's time on the other.²

In view of the facts that the Secretary for Education is not an expert in educational matters, that he is not a permanent officer in charge of education and that the dualism leads to delay and duplication of work it might be proper to delegate to the Director of Education all the administrative responsibilities now performed by the Secretary for Education.

The Director of Education prepares and submits to the Government the annual budget of the department. At the secretariat level, the budget is carefully scrutinised and the final estimates are placed before the state legislature for voting and are passed in the form of budget grants.

The budget estimates for 1961-1962 include estimate for education which is Rs. 1,165 lacs. This is approximately 20 per cent of the total budget estimate which is Rs. 5,812 lacs. It is very likely that this percentage will increase as the financial condition of the State improves.

Out of the total expenditure of Rs. 1,043 lacs on education for 1960-1961, 7.7 per cent was spent on higher education, 14.1 per cent on secondary education, 67.2 per

¹ Government of India. *Progress of Education in India, 1947-1952*. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1953. p. 16.

² Government of India. *Progress of Education in India, 1937-1947*, Vol. I. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1948. p. 23.

cent on primary education, 9.2 per cent for other institutions, and 1.6 per cent for administration and general supervision.

PATTERN OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL

Under the Director of Education, there are educational inspectors in all the districts of Gujarat. The educational inspector is the head of the educational administration of the district. He exercises general supervision over primary education and social education and is directly responsible for the inspection of secondary schools and special institutions like training colleges, school for defectives, agricultural institutions, etc. He grants recognition to these institutions and assesses grant-in-aid to be paid to them. As a member of the District Development Board, he participates in its deliberations so far as education is concerned. Being a member of the Staff Selection Committee of the district, he is connected with the selection of primary teachers. Moreover, he is also a member of the Appellate Tribunal of the district which disposes of the appeals from the primary teachers. In all the districts except three small ones, the educational inspectors belong to G.E.S. Class I.

The educational inspector is assisted by deputy educational inspectors and assistant deputy educational inspectors in the old districts of the ex-Bombay State. In the districts of the Saurashtra region, there is no post of deputy educational inspector, and the assistant deputy educational inspectors are attached to the office of the administrative officer. The deputy educational inspector exercises supervision over primary education of the entire district through assistant deputy educational inspectors. He arranges for the inspection of all primary schools in the district including the approved schools. He submits to the school board his recommendation regarding the recognition or withdrawal of recognition of private primary schools. He recommends grant-in-aid to be paid by the school board to approved private schools. He belongs to G.E.S. Class II cadre.

The assistant deputy educational inspectors are mainly responsible for the inspection of primary and social education. An assistant deputy educational inspector is in charge of a beat, which usually has 40 to 60 schools. He inspects each school once a year and is expected to pay surprise visits more than once. He also inspects and audits the accounts of all the approved private primary schools and recommends the grant to be paid to these institutions. An assistant deputy educational inspector is expected to be on tour for 250 days in a year. They come to the district headquarters once a month to attend a meeting held by the educational inspector to discuss various problems and to devise ways and means of spreading education. Though the posts of assistant deputy educational inspectors are filled by trained graduates, 35 per cent of them are

reserved for capable seniormost primary trained teachers of the district. In order to pay special attention to physical education and girls' schools, each district has special posts of A.D.E.I. for physical education for boys, A.D.E.I. for physical education for girls, and A.D.E.I. for girls' schools.

In addition to the above mentioned officers in the district, there is another officer of G.E.S. Class II cadre in each district except Kutch. He is styled as the administrative officer. As the name suggests he deals with the administration of primary education in the district, and is expected to perform: (1) duties in relation to primary schools, (2) duties with regard to schemes of expansion in education, (3) duties with regard to financial matters, (4) duties with regard to general administrative matters, (5) duties in relation to educational matters, (6) duties connected with District Building Committee, (7) duties in relation to the meetings of the School Board, and (8) duties as the secretary and member of the Staff Selection Committee.

The administrative officer is assisted in his work by assistant administrative officers and supervisors. In all districts the administrative officer is subordinate to the educational inspector and works under his guidance and supervision. There are also Class III administrative officers for school boards of authorised municipalities in the State.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

In respect of administration and control of primary education, the State divided into three distinct areas: (1) 11 districts of the old Bombay State, (2) 5 districts of Saurashtra, and (3) Kutch. Primary Education in the areas of the Ex-Bombay State is administered under the Bombay (now Gujarat) Primary Education Act, 1947. Under this Act, in the cities and larger towns of the State, administration of primary education is entrusted to municipalities on a grant-in-aid basis. These municipalities are known as "Authorised Municipalities" and have been given fairly large powers which are exercised by them mostly through "Municipal School Boards" constituted under the relevant provisions of the Act. For the administration of primary education in the remaining areas of the pre-reorganised Bombay State, "District School Boards" have been constituted, one for each district. They manage primary schools in all rural areas as well as the areas of the "non-authorised municipalities" (that is, municipalities other than "Authorised Municipalities") which are required to make a prescribed contribution for the purpose to the respective district school boards.

The school boards (both district and municipal) administer primary education in their respective areas of jurisdiction, in accordance with the provisions of the Bombay (now Gujarat) Primary Education Act, 1947, and the rules made thereunder.

Each district school board has a chief executive officer called the administrative officer. He is a government officer in G.E.S. Class II. Each municipal school board too, has an administrative Officer in G.E.S. Class III appointed by the government, or by an authorised municipality that may have been authorised by government to appoint such an administrative officer. The administrative officer not only discharges his duties in relation to the meetings of the school board and the general conduct of its business, but is also responsible for the general administration of all primary schools maintained by the school board or the authorised municipality as the case may be.

There is a staff selection committee constituted under the Act, for every district school board and authorised municipality. It consists of three members, viz., (1) the chairman of the School Board, (2) the administrative officer, and (3) the district educational inspector. The Staff Selection Committee recruits the school board staff including primary school teachers, selects teachers to be deputed for training and also recommends transfers of primary school teachers.

Primary education in Saurashtra area is, at present, administered under the Saurashtra Primary Education Act 1956, whose provisions are not materially different from those of the Bombay (Gujarat) Primary Education Act 1947, except on two points. Firstly, the Saurashtra Act does not provide for "Authorised Municipalities" and the district school boards manage primary education in the entire area of their respective districts including the municipal areas. Secondly, the entire inspecting staff, namely, assistant deputy educational inspectors, is under the direct control of the district school boards. It may be noted that all the primary schools in the Kutch district are under the direct control and management of the state government. At present there are 16 district school boards and 7 municipal school boards functioning in the State. These are:

I. District School Boards

1. Dangs Dist. Sch. Board	9. Mehsana Dist. Sch. Board
2. Surat —do—	10. Banaskantha —do—
3. Broach —do—	11. Amreli —do—
4. Baroda —do—	12. Rajkot —do—
5. Panchmahals —do—	13. Bhavnagar —do—
6. Kaira —do—	14. Jamnagar —do—
7. Ahmedabad —do—	15. Junagadh —do—
8. Sabarkantha —do—	16. Surendranagar —do—

II. Municipal School Boards

1. Surat Muni. Sch. Board.
2. Baroda —do—
3. Ahmedabad —do—
4. Broach —do—
5. Nadiad —do—
6. Godhra —do—
7. Navsari —do—

The rates of grant-in-aid to school boards are regulated by the Bombay Primary Education Act 1947 and the rules made thereunder. According to this Act, the richer municipalities are required to contribute more liberally towards the cost of primary education. The grants fixed under the Act are as follows:

1. Ahmedabad Municipality — 25 per cent of the total approved expenditure on voluntary education and 50 per cent of the total approved expenditure on compulsory education.
2. Surat Municipality. — 33·3 per cent of the total approved expenditure on voluntary education and 50 per cent of the total approved expenditure on compulsory education.
3. Other Authorised Municipalities — 50 per cent of total approved expenditure on primary education.

The non-authorised municipalities are required to contribute only 3/8 per cent of the total rateable value based upon the capital value (or 5 per cent of the total rateable value based upon the annual letting value) of the property situated within their limits.

As regards the district school boards, each district local board is required to levy the local fund cess at three annas a rupee on land revenue, and to earmark 5/12th of the proceeds for primary education. All other additional expenditure on primary education is borne by the state government. In fact, the state government pays about 96 per cent of the total expenditure incurred by the district school boards on primary education. The old Bombay State pattern of grant-in-aid is applied to Saurashtra School Boards also, with the difference that the municipalities do not pay any contribution on account of

primary education within their areas and the district school boards are given almost 100 per cent grant so far.

In the areas of the old Bombay State, all eligible private primary schools except the practising schools attached to primary training colleges are aided by the district or municipal school board. The maximum maintenance grant paid to these schools is at the rate of Rs. 12/- per girl or backward class pupil and at Rs. 10/- per capita for other pupils. In addition a special dearness grant at two-thirds of the rates sanctioned by the government is also paid. In the case of associations conducting a number of primary schools, a special grant for over-head expenses at 75 per cent of the approved expenditure is also sanctioned. The total grant to any school, however, does not exceed the normal admissible expenditure minus the fee receipts. The grant is also proportionately reduced, if the standard of instruction in the school is not satisfactory. Practising schools attached to primary training colleges are paid grants upto 50 per cent of the approved expenditure directly by the district educational inspectors.

In Saurashtra, the recognition of and grant-in-aid to private primary schools is governed by the relevant rules of the Revised Grant-in-aid Code, 1954. Under these rules, primary schools for boys are paid 50 per cent grant on the admissible expenditure. The corresponding rate of grant in respect of primary schools for girls is 66 66 per cent.

The state government has abolished tuitions fees in all the seven standards in public schools, namely, the schools maintained either by a school board or the state government. Primary schools under private management are permitted to levy fees at the rates approved by government.

The number of primary training institutions in the State generally known as Basic training colleges is now 64. Of these 39 are conducted by the state government and 25 are managed by private bodies on the grant-in-aid basis. The number of training colleges for men is 44 and that for women is 20. The total number of teachers under training at present is over 6,000. The percentage of trained teachers in the new State is approximately 47.4.

Two types of training courses are provided for primary teachers—(1) the Junior Certificate Course and (2) the Senior Certificate Course. The former is meant for Primary School Certificate Examination passed teachers, whereas the latter is meant for Secondary School Certificate Examination passed candidates. Both the courses are of two years' duration. An S.S.C. passed teacher is, however, allowed to complete the Jr. Certificate course within one year, if he so desires and is also permitted to appear for the Senior Certificate

course as an external student one year after he secures his Junior Certificate. In addition, Separate Short Term Classes are conducted for training primary teachers in Hindi and physical education.

In the areas comprised in the new State, pay scales of primary school teachers have been progressively revised six times since 1923 and thrice since 1946. The existing pay scales are as follows:

- (1) Untrained teachers: Rs. 40/- 1 m.
- (2) Junior trained teachers: 50-1-65-2½-70-Selection Grade 2½-90 (S.G. for 15% of the Cadre)
- (3) Senior trained teachers: 56-1½-65-2½-70 S.G. 3-100 (S.G. at 20% of the Cadre after 10 years' service.)

In addition to the basic pay in these scales, dearness allowance at the rates sanctioned for government servants and house rent allowance at prescribed rates are given to primary teachers in all parts of the State. Teachers of the Ex-Baroda State and Ex-Saurashtra State are allowed to retain Ex-State pay scales which are slightly more advantageous for certain categories of head masters.

Subscription to provident fund scheme is compulsory for all primary teachers recruited after 1923. Those recruited before 1923 were allowed to opt for pension. Teachers absorbed from ex-Baroda State Service, permanent teachers of the Ex-Saurashtra State transferred to school boards on 1-8-1956 and all teachers in the Kutch District are on pensionary basis. It is proposed to introduce the pension scheme covering all categories of primary teachers throughout the State territory during the Third Five-Year Plan.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

There are chiefly three agencies through which secondary schools are managed—government, private agencies and local bodies. By far and large, secondary education is largely managed by private agencies followed by government and local bodies in that order. In all there are 892 private schools, 122 government schools, and 102 schools run by local bodies. In the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan, there were 714 secondary schools with an enrolment of 2.48 lac pupils. At present, i.e., at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, there are about 1,116 schools with an enrolment of about 3.44 lac pupils. Thus there is an increase of about 56.30 per cent in schools and about 38.71 per cent in enrolment during the Second Five-Year Plan. The increase is mainly due to government encouragement and private efforts.

A large number of government schools is found in Saurashtra, where till recently private agencies were reluctant to undertake the work. But the state government are encouraging private agencies to open new secondary schools. In order to achieve this aim, it is proposed that those who undertake the opening of new secondary schools be paid liberal grant-in-aid in the beginning starting with 90 per cent in the first year and sliding down at the rate of 10 per cent each year till it reaches the normal rate of grant-in-aid. The administration of secondary education in Gujarat thus rests largely with the private agencies, which manage trust schools or society schools. The government have adopted a policy of not encouraging private proprietary schools.

In respect of control of secondary education the state government are vested with all the necessary powers, and through the Director of Education the government exercises the powers. The Director of Education exercises the powers conferred on him by the grant-in-aid code whereby he approves the granting or withdrawal of recognition to secondary schools. In this, he is aided by educational inspectors of various districts and the Inspector of Girls Schools, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad. Moreover, he lays down certain rules for the recognition of secondary schools. The qualifications of headmasters and teachers of various types in secondary schools are fixed by the Director of Education. Moreover, the scales of pay for the headmasters and teachers in secondary schools are fixed by him. He is an appellate authority in respect of termination of services of secondary school teachers.

Another way of controlling secondary education is through the apportioning of grants to various secondary schools. The Director of Education sanctions grants for payment to different secondary schools through the educational inspector of each district, who inspects or visits each secondary school at least once a year and forwards his proposals for award of grant to the Director of Education.

All grants, i.e., maintenance grant, equipment grant, building grant, and other special grants are sanctioned by the Director of Education. The maintenance grant is paid at the rate of 45 per cent and 50 per cent of the admissible expenditure for urban and rural areas respectively, which was till recently 30 and 33 per cent respectively. The equipment grant is generally paid at the rate of 25 per cent, and the building grant is also paid at the same rate provided the necessary funds are available. In 1959-60, the government paid to some schools extent 50 per cent of grant for non-recurring expenditure on equipment and building. In the Saurashtra the equipment and building grants are paid to the school authorities at the rate of 50 per cent of the expenditure. All these grants are sanctioned by the Director of Education and are paid through and by the educational inspector of the district concerned.

The other source of income for the secondary schools is the tuition fee. Here also the Department of Education has standardised rates of fees to be charged according to certain categories of areas. The managements have to seek the departmental permission, if they want to raise fees above the prescribed rates. From this year the Government of Gujarat have undertaken to provide free education for the children of those parents, who earn less than Rs. 1,200/- annually.

Raising money through donation is another source of income for the secondary schools. Certain schools such as multi-purpose high schools receive grant to the tune of 60 per cent of the expenditure from the Central Government and the remaining 40 per cent is borne by the management and the State Government. Secondary Education is further controlled by the state government through the prescription of curricula for various types of secondary schools. There is a seven-year secondary course leading to Secondary School Certificate Examination.

A statutory board, known as the Gujarat Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, is an examining body holding S.S.C. Examination at the end of Std. XI for the entire State. It consists of representatives of universities, nominated members from amongst headmasters, head mistresses and secondary teachers of recognised high schools, principals of secondary training colleges, persons who have had experience of matters connected with higher or secondary education, and *ex-officio* members. The Board has its headquarters at Baroda. The entire syllabus of S.S.C. Examination is divided into 6 groups, covering 93 subjects. A candidate appearing for S.S.C. Examination is expected to take 7 or 8 subjects. Under the recent S.S.C. Examination scheme, there will be at least four compulsory subjects and three optional ones from the various groups of subjects.

The management of secondary schools by private bodies raises many problems. Service conditions, salary scales, promotions, retirement benefits differ from school to school. The strained relation between the management and the staff often have adverse effect on teaching. The problem of salary scales is solved by the introduction of Ghate-Parulekar Scheme according to which the pay scales for various categories of teachers are standardised and the Department has accepted them both for the secondary schools managed by private agencies and the Government. However, recently there has been a disparity between the salary scales of teachers in private secondary schools and those of state institutions as the government has accepted recommendations of the Secondary Integration Committee in respect of salary scales for teachers in private schools. According to the Secondary Integration Committee's recommendation the scale of pay for a trained graduate is Rs. 120-300 exclusive of dearness allowance and other benefits if any. The matter of

disparaty between the two pay scales of government and non-government secondary schools is under the active consideration of the government. In view of the difficulties experienced by the secondary school teachers, they would prefer to have the secondary schools managed by the state government which would ensure them security of tenure. But the past instances clearly indicate that the government have well formulated its policy of encouraging private enterprise in secondary education. With departmental control and private management, there is hope of bright future for secondary education.

With a view to providing ample facilities for special trends, multi-purpose schools are started and aided by the Department. These schools are specially aided both for recurring and non-recurring expenditure by the Government of India as well as state government. The types of multi-purpose courses and their number in Gujarat are as under:

TABLE 57
Multi-purpose Courses Gujarat

	Type of Courses	No. of Courses
1.	Agriculture ...	21
2.	Commerce ...	38
3.	Science ...	11
4.	Fine Arts ...	21
5.	Home Science ..	18
	Total	109

For teachers in secondary schools, there are four types of arrangement to get training in education. The under-graduates can take training either for Secondary Teachers' Certificate or Teachers' Diploma courses. The S.T.C. course is under the control of Department of Education and is an in-service education course. Training in this course is imparted by private bodies. A candidate has to appear for practical as well as theory examinations in order to receive the certificate.

There are also two types of courses for graduate teachers. The secondary teachers' training colleges affiliated to universities offer the B.Ed. degree. There are six such colleges in this State. Three of them run M. Ed. courses as well. Provision for imparting training to graduate teachers is also made by the state government through two graduates' basic training colleges at Rajpipla and Mangrol. The successful trainees are awarded Diploma in Education by the Department. Both the B. Ed. and G. B. T. C. courses are of equal status

The Faculty of Education and Psychology, Baroda conducts post-graduate diploma courses in Guidance and Counselling, Applied Linguistics, and Educational Administration.

Separate provision is made for training in Hindi by the institution of Senior Hindi *Shikshak Sanad* Course by the government which is an in-service type course. Training is imparted in physical education and a diploma is offered at the end of 9 months' training.

HIGHER EDUCATION

In the State of Gujarat there are three statutory universities, viz. (1) Gujarat University, Ahmedabad, (2) The Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda, and (3) The Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth, Anand. Of these, M. S. University, Baroda and the Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth, Anand are residential universities and the Gujarat University is an affiliating body.

The medium of instruction is different in each of the three universities. The Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda has English as the medium of instruction, while the Gujarat University, Ahmedabad and the Sardar Vallabhbhai University, Anand have Gujarati and Hindi respectively.

There are 40 colleges affiliated to the Gujarat University, Ahmedabad, 5 colleges to the Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth, Anand, and 9 faculties attached to the Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda. Four colleges from Gujarat have been affiliated to the Shrimati Nathibhai Damodar Thackersay (S.N.D.T.) University which is an institution exclusively for ladies and has its headquarters at Bombay.

There are also three research institutions in Gujarat State, viz., (1) Physical Research Laboratory; (2) B. M. Institute of Psychology and Child Development, and (3) B. J. Institute of Learning and Research. The government gives grants to research institute at the rate of 25 per cent of the approved expenditure.

In order to cater for the needs of certain sections of society, there are special institutions such as:

1. College of Indian Music, Dance and Dramatics, Baroda,
2. Faculty of Fine Arts, Baroda,
3. Faculty of Social Work, Baroda,
4. Faculty of Home Science, Baroda,
5. Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Baroda,
6. Lok Bharati Rural Institute, Sanosara.

The following is the statement showing the increase during the past decade in number of institutions of higher learning and students in Gujarat:

TABLE 58
Development of Higher Education, Gujarat, 1950-59

Year	Institutions	Enrolment
1950-51	39	13,667
1951-52	42	17,070
1952-53	48	19,996
1953-54	50	21,452
1954-55	50	23,349
1955-56	59	27,327
1956-57	72	32,007
1957-58	76	37,446
1958-59	79	40,201

The majority of arts colleges are maintained by private agencies. They are financed mainly by tuition fees and donations. However maintenance grants are provided at the the rate of 10 per cent, 15 per cent and 20 per cent of the approved expenditure by the government on the basis of the Grant-in-aid Code. As regards government colleges, the budget provision is made by the state government and principals of the colleges submit their proposals to the Director of Education for sanctioning the same.

During the year 1961-62, a sum of Rs. 32 lakhs has been provided to three universities as maintenance grant and also 10 lacs have been provided as matching grants to the universities. These grants are given on the basis of the University Grants Commission's share from which recurring grants are paid on 50:50 basis and non-recurring grant on 33.33:66.66 basis by State and the University Grants Commission. The State's share generally depends on the availability of funds.

The general and administrative control of government colleges rests with the Director of Education, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad. As far as the universities are concerned, the administrative control rests with the vice-chancellor of the university concerned. The Director of Education, Ahmedabad is, however, the countersigning authority as far as financial matter is concerned. Most of the educational problems are discussed at the senate or syndicate level. Generally principals of colleges are members of the senate. Hence the pattern of university education administration is democratic to a certain extent.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

In the Ex-Bombay State area, a City Social Education Committee was constituted for the city of Ahmedabad. The Committee is paid grant at the rate of 50 per cent of the approved expenditure. For the rest of the area, a Regional Social Education Committee

has been constituted and a special officer known as Social Education Officer is entrusted with the social education work. He belongs to G.E.S. Class II cadre and has his headquarters at Surat. In the Community Development Block areas, the work of social education has been given the top-most priority and a special staff of social education organisers is appointed. In areas not covered by the Community Development Blocks, the social education programme is left entirely to the control of Education Department through the Social Education Officer and educational inspectors of each district. Primary teachers and some social workers run the social education classes which are visited and examined by the inspecting officers under the educational inspector. Grants-in-aid are given to the classes by government through the budget allotted to the Regional Social Education Committee.

In Saurashtra, social education work was introduced with the help of Education and Development departments. Some other agencies like Maldhari Sangh and Backward Class Board also helped the cause. The work was pursued under the direct supervision and guidance of the administrative officers and the educational inspectors district level and under the Chief Social Education Organiser at the divisional level.

In Kutch, adult centres are conducted by four agencies—the Education Department, National Extension Service Blocks, Social Welfare Department and the District Local Boards. All meet expenditure from their own budgets and independent arrangement for supervision and examinations are made by each agency.

The social education programme is mainly financed from the state funds. The Social Education Committee, established in Ahmedabad, receives contributions from these funds and grant at the rate of 50 per cent is given to it. The expenditure includes the remuneration or pay to social education workers conducting the classes. In the Ex-Bombay State area the workers are paid at the rate of Rs. 4/- and Rs. 5/- per adult passing the Ist and IInd test respectively. In Saurashtra region workers are paid at the rate of Rs. 20/- per month under certain prescribed conditions. Government also provides literature, books, slates, contingencies, etc. for adults undergoing such education. In the Community Development Blocks, expenditure for social education is borne from the block budget.

In order to train social education workers, short courses of a fortnight's duration are organised during vacations in selected training colleges in the State. The trainees are given instruction in aims, objectives, historical background and methods of teaching adults. The government incurs expenditure of Rs. 1,000 for every course of 40 trainees.

OTHER FIELDS OF EDUCATION

One characteristic of the modern world is expansionism. Education is not limited to primary, secondary and higher education only. It reaches out to other fields also.

Consequently the State of Gujarat has provided for technical education, visual education, physical education, library education, education in commerce, etc. An attempt will be made here to show the administrative set-up in these areas in brief.

In this machine-minded world, technical education has taken such strides that the Government of India has provided for a separate Directorate of Technical Education and as such it is beyond the purview of this chapter. However, it may be mentioned while passing, that the government is providing technical courses of various kinds to suit the abilities of different categories of pupils. There are courses for pupils who have primary education, and for those who are in high schools. There are polytechnics, where those who have passed the Secondary School Certificate Examination are given technical knowledge.

The State Inspector of Commerce Schools is an officer in Gujarat Education Service Class I under the Director of Education. He is entrusted with the duties of inspecting and granting recognition to commercial institutions, inspecting high schools of commerce every year jointly with the educational inspector of the district, supervising the working of the commerce classes attached to government high schools, making arrangements for holding certificate and diploma examinations in commerce and suggesting steps to the Director of Education for the improvement of secondary schools of commerce.

Under the Director of Education there is the Inspector for Visual Education, who is responsible for the organisation, development and direction of the work of visual education. His is the primary responsibility of encouraging the use of visual aids, still films projectors, 16 mm. sound and silent projectors, radios, etc., for imparting education to pupils in schools and to adults in rural areas. He looks after the repairs and replacements of all the visual aids and accessories in charge of the departmental officers with a view to keeping them all in working condition. He is responsible for the periodical circulation of slides and films among government institutions and inspecting officers in the State.

From 1957, under the Audio-Visual Scheme, three mobile units began to function in three districts of Saurashtra, viz., Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Surendranagar. The mobile unit consists of unit librarian, operator and driver. A similar set-up has come into existence in Kutch since 1958.

The State Inspector for Physical Education is under the Director of Education and has his jurisdiction all over the State. It is his duty to promote and organise the schemes of physical education in primary and secondary schools, and in teachers' training colleges. He is entrusted with the work of organising short term courses for primary school teachers, holding camps and seminars for teachers of primary and secondary schools, and state sports

festival. He conducts examinations in physical education and Diploma in Physical Education courses. Moreover, he administers and supervises National Discipline Scheme in the State. He also organises coaching camps and tournaments for selection of State teams and athletes. Except for Kutch, each district has an assistant deputy educational inspector for physical education. He is attached to the office of the educational inspector and works under his direct control. Some bigger districts have two such posts—one for boys and the other for girls. These officers supervise, implement and promote the programme of physical education in the district.

Recently, the state government is encouraging library movement. The Curator of Libraries is responsible to the Director of Education. The function and duties of the Curator of Libraries are to look after the organisation, development and direction of work relating to the various classes of libraries under the library development scheme, to inspect various libraries and to pay grants to them and to suggest ways and means of improving the libraries.

The Curator of Libraries is assisted by two assistant curators of libraries—one at Baroda and another at Ahmedabad. The Assistant Curator of Libraries at Baroda is in charge of the Central Library, Baroda, and town and children's libraries in Baroda, Broach, Panchmahals, Surat and the Dang districts. The Assistant Curator of Libraries at Ahmedabad is in charge of the town and children's libraries in Ahmedabad, Amreli, Banaskantha, Kaira, Mehsana and Sabarkantha districts.

In Saurashtra, the Librarian, Central Library, Rajkot, and district librarians look after the library activities of the Rajkot Region and the district concerned under the guidance of the Curator of Libraries.

At present there is a Chief Officer for Cultural Activities attached to the Directorate of Education. His duty is to promote the spread of cultural activities throughout the State. In order to achieve this aim, drama, music and *bhavai mahotsavas* are held annually at the State level, dramatic and cultural institutions and dance, drama and music schools are paid, and grants and prizes are awarded to the best newly written plays. Famous artists in indigent circumstances are also given financial assistance.

The Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work is another officer in Gujarat Education Service Class I. He is responsible to the Director of Education for inspecting the teaching of drawing in schools and for organising Elementary and Intermediate Drawing Grade examinations.

CONCLUSION

So far we have surveyed the educational administration in the State of Gujarat as it exists at present. But it would be proper to point out here that there are going to be far-reaching changes in the present set-up of the administration of education in the State. The Government of Gujarat had set up a committee to go into the subject of decentralisation of powers. The committee has already prepared its report and submitted its proposals to the government, which are under the consideration of a Cabinet Committee set up for scrutinising the proposals. According to the proposals of the committee, there will be decentralisation of authority, and greater powers will be delegated to *taluka panchayats* and village *panchayats*. Education is one of the spheres which will be greatly affected by the changes. Consequently, there will be a new pattern of educational administration in the State.

It will be observed from what has been stated so far that the problem of integration is not so acute in the State of Gujarat as it was in the bilingual Bombay State. However, it may be pointed out that an Intergration Committee for Primary Education and an Intergration Committee for Secondary Education were appointed in 1957 by the former State of Bombay and were entrusted with the task of evolving a uniform but flexible pattern of primary education and secondary education throughout the territories of the bigger bi-lingual Bombay State.¹ The recommendations of these Intergration Committees which *inter alia* contain suggestions for further delegation of executive authority to the local bodies at the district, *taluka* and village levels are under scrutiny and consideration of the state government.

The Government of Gujarat will be doing the proper thing in carrying out the reform of decentralising of educational administration, which is long overdue and the need for which is so well stated by Sir John Sargent, an Ex Educational Adviser to the Government of India, in the following words:

Apart from the argument in favour of enlisting provincial or local patriotism, the force of which I neither deplore nor depreciate, there is a more fundamental reason which convinces me that the excessive centralisation of educational administration is likely to prove abortive. Education is in the last analysis a personal affair; it must depend for its success on the establishment of proper relations between teachers on the one hand and pupils and their parents on the other. The primary object of all educational administration must be to promote the establishment of these relations by ensuring the necessary spiritual and material conditions. This is particularly impor-

tant in the earlier stages of education and I do not believe that in a large country a central organisation, however efficient it may be, which is inevitably far removed from most of the places where the actual contact between teachers, children and parents takes place, can possess and give practical effect to that knowledge of any sympathy with local conditions which alone can make these contacts realistic and effective. . . These provincial governments and administrations will in many cases themselves be too big to deal efficiently with anything but general policy and principles. They should, therefore, in their turn devolve responsibility for detailed administration on smaller units which need not be, and in my opinion as a rule emphatically should not be, existing local government bodies, e.g., Municipalities, District Boards, etc., unless there can be no shadow of doubt as to their capacity, to administer education with vision and integrity ¹

¹ *Progress of Education in India, 1937-47, Vol. I. p 20.*

BACKGROUND

THE LAND. — The State of Jammu and Kashmir, as the name denotes, consists of two parts — Jammu and Kashmir. While the former is situated not on very high altitude, the latter is covered with snow-clad mountains.

Kashmir has often been described as a paradise on the earth. It is the land of rivers and lakes, of flower-spangled gardens and forests ringed round by stupendous mountains. Kashmir has been described as an 'emerald set in pearls'.

Kashmir has been the favourite haunt of lovers of beauty in all ages. The great Mughal emperors, Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan, visited Kashmir regularly and laid out lovely gardens in Srinagar, its capital. Thomas Moore, the well-known English poet, had expressed his admiration for this land in the following words in his poem, *Lalla Rookh*:

Who has not heard of the Vale of Cashmere
With its roses the brightest that earth ever gave
Its temples and grottos and fountains as clear
As the love-lighted eyes that hang o'er their wave'

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. — Kashmir has also an old tradition. It was a part of the Empire of Ashoka, who laid the city of Srinagar. After the commencement of the Christian era, the valley was invaded by the Tartars, and later on Buddhism became the state religion. In the 6th century A.D. came the White Huns. Hieun-Tsang, the famous Chinese, traveller, visited Kashmir in A.D. 629-31. Amongst the later rulers, Lalitaditya was famous.* He is said to have subdued many kingdoms and turned his attention to Central Asia and returned victorious *via* Tibet. Mahmud of Gazni also attempted to invade Kashmir, but failed to effect an entry. Dynastic revolutions followed and ultimately the valley passed into the hands of Muslim rulers. The most notable of the Muslim rulers was Sultan Zain-ul-Abdin (1420-70). He encouraged learning, fine arts and polytechnics.

Akbar conquered Kashmir in 1586. Jehangir and Shah Jahan were very fond of Kashmir. In 1750, Ahmad Shah Abdali occupied this land. From 1819 to 1846, Kashmir remained under the Sikhs. After the disintegration of the Sikh power, Kashmir passed into the hands of Gulab Singh by the Treaty of Amritsar signed on March 16, 1846. Maharaja Gulab Singh died in 1857 and was succeeded by his son Maharaja Ranbir Singh, who was a great patron of art and letters. He was succeeded in 1885 by his son, Maharaja Pratap Singh. Maharaja Hari Singh succeeded his uncle, Maharaja Pratap Singh, in 1925. He expired in 1961. With the advent of independence, the monarchy was abolished in the State in September, 1952, and Yuvaraj Karan Singh was elected as the first Sadar-i-Riyasat.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION. Educational development of the State is not less interesting. Like any other part of India, the *pathshalas* and *maktabs* have been the earliest types of indigenous elementary institutions in Kashmir imparting instruction in Hindu and Mohammedan scriptures respectively besides teaching the 3 R's. Gradually, schools of modern type were established.

Nor was administration of education neglected, and Babu Manoheschander Biswas the Director of Education organised the Department of Education systematically in 1877. In 1889-90 A.D., the total expenditure on education came to Rs. 43,082-3-5. The Director of Education also conducted departmental examinations.

The educational statistics of 1909-10 are interesting. In that year, there were 2 arts colleges, 7 high schools, 24 middle schools, 153 primary schools, and one normal school at Srinagar. There were 2 middle schools and 6 primary schools for girls. The percentage of boys at school to the total school going-age population was 3.54 and that of girls 0.12. Five candidates were deputed to the Central Training College, Lahore for B.T. training and ten to the Normal School, Lahore. Primary education was free in the State. There was no uniformity in the text-books. A few schools had boarding houses in rented buildings. Grant-in-aid was given to 8 private institutions. A cess was levied for education.

Another important land-mark in educational history is the year 1912-13, when religious education was introduced in all State schools. Inspection was also organised, and the inspecting staff consisted of: (1) an inspector of schools, assisted by an assistant inspector and a district inspector for each of the two divisions--Jammu and Kashmir; and (2) an assistant inspector of schools for the Frontier. The total cost on supervision came to Rs. 10,300/- and on inspection Rs. 36,050/-. The government also took charge of the Sri Pratap Hindu College, Srinagar. A number of vernacular and anglo-vernacular middle schools were also opened, and His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur announced an annual grant of Rs. 25,000/- for primary education.

In 1915, the services of Mr. H. Sharp, Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, were loaned to the State Government for examining the working of the State Education Department. The recommendations of the "Report on the Educational Policy of the State" by Mr. Sharp (1916) were implemented in subsequent years. The inspection staff of the Education Department was reorganised in 1919.

Twenty-four years later, another educational reorganisation committee was set up under the chairmanship of Sri K. G. Saiyadain, the distinguished Indian educationist. He happened to be the Director of Education of the State at that time. The report of this committee gave a new orientation to the educational system. It led to the formulation of new schemes of Basic Education and Adult Education in the State. In 1952, Mr. A. Kazmi (Director of Education) started a multi-purpose secondary school on an experimental basis.

Among other things under the New Constitution of Jammu and Kashmir, the State is directed to endeavour:

1. To secure for every permanent resident the right of free education upto the university standard;
2. to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this Constitution, compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years,
3. to ensure to all workers and employees adequate facilities for adult education and part-time technical, professional and vocational courses;
4. to secure for all children the right to happy childhood with adequate medical care and attention;
5. to secure for all children and youth equal opportunities in education and employment, protection against exploitation;
6. for women, the Constitution directs the State to endeavour to secure the right to full equality in all social and educational matters.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

STATE LEVEL. — Education in Jammu and Kashmir is a function of the State, and the state legislature directs the educational policy. The Government of India subsidises approved central plans of education.

In the state government, the portfolio of education is held by the Prime Minister and the Minister of State for Education. The secretariat staff consists of a secretary, one deputy secretary and one under-secretary to Government. The education secretariat is a moving office and it has its headquarters at Srinagar and Jammu during summer and winter respectively. An educational adviser has been appointed quite recently.

Subordinate to the Ministry of Education is the Central Directorate of Education with the Director of Education as its head. The Directorate is also a moving office with its headquarters at Srinagar and Jammu. The Director of Education is assisted by one Central Deputy Director of Education, one Assistant Director of Physical Education, one officer in charge of Scouting, and one Science Consultant.

All the schools and colleges are under the administrative control of the Director of Education. But the Government Polytechnic and engineering colleges are under the administrative control of the Minister for Education, and the industrial training schools (formerly technical schools) are under the administrative control of the Director of Education.

PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE.—This State is divided into two provinces—Jammu and Kashmir. In each province, there is a provincial directorate consisting of a deputy director for boys' education and a deputy directress for girls' education. This directorate is subordinate to the Central Directorate. It has no jurisdiction either over college education or the schools under the administrative control of principals of teachers' training colleges at Jammu and Kashmir.

ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL.—Each province is divided into districts—four in Kashmir and five in Jammu. There is a district inspector for each district. He is in charge of boys' schools—lower, higher, middle, primary, central, basic, *maktabs* and Basic. He is responsible to the provincial deputy director of education.

Each district is further sub-divided into *tehsils*, and there are *tehsil* education officers for each district (13 for Kashmir, and 17 for Jammu). They work under the district inspectors of their own districts.

ADMINISTRATION OF GIRLS' EDUCATION.—A striking feature of educational administration of the State is the existence of a separate machinery for the administration of girls' education quite distinctly separate from boys' education—a deputy directress for a province, and inspectresses of schools (three for Kashmir and five for Jammu) at the district and *tehsil* levels. The Director of Education is the coordinating link for the administration of boys' and girls' education. The deputy directresses and the inspectress are in charge of all girls' schools—higher, lower, high, middle, primary, central, Basic, *maktabs* and *pathshalas*.

LOCAL BODIES—There are no such institutions as municipal board schools, town area committee schools, district board schools and the like in this State. There are, however, construction committees in different localities entrusted with the job of procurement of land and the construction of school buildings. Local *panchayats* and others are represented in these committees.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Collegiate education is under the administrative control of the Director of Education and under the control of the University of Jammu and Kashmir for academic matters. There are at present 8 degree colleges, 4 intermediate colleges, 1 commerce college, 2 teachers' colleges, 1 engineering college, 1 medical college, and 10 colleges for oriental studies in the State.

The University of Jammu and Kashmir, like other Indian universities, is an autonomous body. The high and higher secondary departments of schools are recognised by the university for purposes of sending their scholars for matriculation and higher secondary examinations. The arts, science and teachers' colleges of the State are affiliated to the university for examination purposes. The university of Jammu and Kashmir is both a teaching and an examining body. It has its own post-graduate teaching departments in subjects like English, Economics, Hindi, Mathematics and Geology. The university has a full-time vice-chancellor.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary Education is the most important link between primary education at one end and the university or collegiate education at the other. The children of age-group 6-11 attend either primary schools (non-Basic) or the activity Basic schools (Junior). At the age 11+ they proceed to the middle school (non-Basic) or the senior Basic school or the middle department of the high school. At the age of 14+ they join the high or the higher secondary departments of an ordinary high or the multilateral higher secondary school. Multilateral or multipurpose higher secondary schools are of recent growth. As many as 24 high schools have so far been converted into the higher secondary pattern with diversified curricula as envisaged in the Report of the 'Secondary Education Commission' of 1952-53. While introducing specialized courses in different schools, attention has been paid to the local environment and the vocational needs of pupils. Qualified staff has also been appointed for teaching various special subjects in higher secondary schools. Liberal grants are offered for the purchase of equipment.

The primary and middle schools as well as junior Basic and senior Basic schools (other than those attached to the training schools as practising schools) are under the control of the *tehsil* education officers. The Basic schools are supervised by the Basic Education Supervisor. The high schools (other than those attached to the teachers' training colleges as practising schools) are under the administrative control of the district inspectors of schools. The multilateral higher secondary schools (other than those attached to the teachers' training colleges as practising schools) are under the administrative control of provincial deputy directors of education.

Primary education in the State extends for a period of five years beginning from the age of 6. In the Third Five-Year Plan, it is being contemplated to universalize primary education for the age group 6-11 as in other states of the Indian Union. Along with expansion, attention is being paid to quality. The majority of primary schools are gradually being converted into the Basic pattern, and the educational needs of mobile sections of the population are fulfilled by providing mobile primary schools.

The primary schools (both Basic and non-Basic) are under the administrative control of the *tehsil* education officers. The Basic education supervisors also supervise basic schools.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.—Formerly, there used to be one technical institute called the Amarsingh Technical Institute, Srinagar. Subsequently, this technical institute became a department of the Government Multipurpose High School, Baghi-Dilawar. Another technical school has been opened at Chogan Fatu, Jammu, quite recently. During the second five-year plan period the Government sanctioned liberal grants for the opening of two industrial training institutes—one at Srinagar and the other at Jammu. These institutions have been set up on the pattern approved by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India. They provide instruction in different trades like smithy, carpentry, weaving, calico-printing, drawing, wicker works, painting, electricity turner and motor mechanic courses. Deserving students are also awarded handsome scholarships.

One polytechnic and one engineering college have been opened at Srinagar and are under the administrative control of the Minister of Education. The engineering college is established on a regional basis and fifty per cent of its expenses are to be borne by the State of Jammu and Kashmir. A medical college has been established at Srinagar quite recently. Two agriculture colleges—one at Sopore (Kashmir) and the other at Ranbirsinghpura (Jammu) are also to be opened this year. An *ayurvedic college* is contemplated to be opened at Jammu.

SOCIAL EDUCATION.—Social education has been a responsibility of the Community Development Department. Under the directives of the Central Government, it is contemplated to be transferred to the State Education Department.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION.—There are no independent nursery schools in the State but Kindergarten classes have been attached to a few public and private schools. There is, however, no separate provision for pre-primary education.

FINANCE

The sources of income for education are: (1) Annual budgetary allocation for government institutions and government aids to private institutions (2) Tuition fees to private schools; and (3) Other sources.

Out of the total budget of Rs. 12,83,40,000/- for the entire State the budgetary provision for education alone (including the regional engineering college and the polytechnic) is Rs. 2,16,78,450/- for the financial year 1960-61. This budgetary allocation is broken up under various heads by the Department of Education.

Fiscal aid to private schools is governed by a set of departmental rules called the grant-in-aid rules. The following are some of the important rules for the award of grants to private schools:

1. The rate of fees charged in an educational institution shall be got approved by the authorities competent to approve the personnel of the Managing Committees.
2. No aided institution will charge fees from students in shape of subscriptions or donations or in any other form, the levying of which has not been approved by the authority;
3. No grant shall be allowed unless an institution has a reserve of an amount equal to 6 months of its normal expenditure;
4. State aid may be given for the purposes of the maintenance, purchase of land and erection of buildings for educational institutions;
5. Maintenance grants will be of the following kinds:
 - (1) Block grants for attendance and instructions, etc.,
 - (2) Staff grants, and
 - (3) Hostel grants.
6. Block grants are made for attendance and instruction. For the purpose of awarding block grants, each department of an institution shall be considered as a unit. The grant shall be based on the average attendance recorded on two visits made in the course of a year for the purpose without previous notice by the departmental officers.
7. Full rate of grants shall be allowed to departments considered to be satisfactory. Grants allowed to departments which are only fairly satisfactory shall be 75 per cent of the full rate. For the purposes of the overall assessment of fairly satisfactory, satisfactory and of exceptionally satisfactory institutions, the following shall be the considerations:
 - (1) Attendance and smart out-turn of scholars.
 - (2) Tuitional condition and average result of previous three years.

8. Percentage for assessing the average result will be as under

- (1) "Exceptionally satisfactory" not less than 80 per cent;
- (2) "Satisfactory"—not less than 50 per cent;
- (3) "Fairly satisfactory"—not less than 40 per cent;
- (4) Co-curricular activities, and
- (5) Adequate and qualified staff.

9. The total grant for the maintenance of an institution (including all aid from public revenues towards expenditure on tuition) shall not exceed three-fourths of the excess of the expenditure on tuition over the income from tuition fee and endowments.¹

THE ROLE OF PRIVATE ENTERPRISE *

Education in Jammu and Kashmir is essentially a state (public) enterprise. As many as 97.5 per cent of educational institutions are managed by government and 2.5 per cent by private bodies (2.3 per cent aided and 0.2 per cent unaided). Government gives liberal grants to private institutions.

In the field of private enterprise, the pioneer work of Christian missionary societies is commendable. Other private organisations like D.A.V., Khalsa, Islamic, and S. D. Sabha, etc. are also doing good work. The government has also taken proper care to safeguard the interests of the employees of private bodies. They have been given due representation in the managing committee of the institution, where they serve. Some of the details of the constitution of the managing committees of aided institutions are given below:

1. Every aided institution will be under the direct control and direction of a managing committee of a representative character;

2. The personnel of the Managing Committees of each school shall be approved by the Director of Education and in the case of colleges and institutions imparting education in Oriental subjects by the Minister-in-charge of Education. There shall be a representative of the Education Department on each Managing Committee as a member. The President, Vice-President, the Secretary and the Treasurer of the Committee shall be elected and the term of office of a member or any office bearer shall be 3 years at a time.

3. The Managing Committees shall constitute of 7 to 11 members including the Principal or the Headmaster/Headmistress of the institution and one or two elected representatives of the teaching staff of the institution subject to this number

¹ Government of Jammu and Kashmir. *Grant-in-Aid Rules*. Government Order No. 6-C of 1959. Dated 6th February, 1959.

of teacher being borne on its establishment. With the exception of the Principal/Headmaster/Headmistress, 1/3rd of the members will be balloted out every third year. A balloted out member will be eligible to re-election but no one including the President, Vice-President and the Secretary will be elected consecutively for more than two terms.

4. The Principal/Headmaster/Headmistress will be responsible for the day-to-day management of the institution, in all matters of administration and tuition work. There will be no interference by the Managing Committee in the internal management of the institution, which will be the function and responsibility of the institution. All matters of appointment, punishment or dismissal of the teaching and the clerical staff will be decided by the Managing Committee. All matters involving expenditure, will be decided by the Managing Committee and approved by the Inspecting Officer concerned in the cases of schools and the Director of Education in the cases of colleges and institutions imparting education in Oriental subjects ¹

NEW PROGRAMMES

INTRODUCTION.—Jammu and Kashmir fully appreciates that the progress of the State depends on the educational development of her people. Ever, since 1947, active steps are being taken for spreading education. Her five-year plans have also taken into consideration the educative needs of the people. The progress achieved during this short period will be evident from Table 59.

TABLE 59

**Number of Educational Institutions, Jammu And Kashmir
1947 — 61**

	Year 1947		No. by the end of First Five-Year Plan.		No. by the end of Second Five-Year Plan	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Primary Schools ...	1,291	280	1,294	247	1,016	296
Basic Schools ...	—	—	—	—	1,159	175
Middle Schools ...	153	50	197	34	125	18
High Schools ...	46	8	87	26	106	32
Higher Secondary Schools ...	—	—	—	—	23	1
Inter Colleges ...	2	—	4	—	4	—
Degree Colleges ...	3	—	4	2	4	2
Industrial Schools ...	1	—	2 ¹	—	2	—
T. T. Schools ...	2	—	8	—	10 ²	2
T. T. Colleges ...	1	—	2 ³	—	2	—
Polytechnic ...	—	—	—	—	1	—
Engineering Colleges...	—	—	—	—	1	—
Medical Colleges ...	—	—	—	—	1	—
Agricultural Colleges...	—	—	—	—	—	2 ⁴

1. One Technical Institute.

2. Includes two training classes.

3. Class attached to P. W. College.

4. Agricultural colleges to be opened in the Third Five-Year Plan.

It will thus be evident that there has been a striking growth in education in Jammu and Kashmir State during the first and second plan periods. The whole structure and content of primary and secondary education have been re-organised. The following table will show the number of institutions before the plan period and now:

TABLE 60

Development of Education in Jammu And Kashmir, 1956-57 to 1959-60.

Institutions	Pre-Plan Period	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
Primary Schools	1,186	2,270	2,610	2,910
Secondary Schools	216	306	366	534
Colleges	7	12	12	12

The total number of scholars attending educational institutions in the year 1951-52 was 1,32,00. The number went upto 2,50,000 in 1959-60. The following table will indicate the increase in expenditure on the educational development in the State:

TABLE 61
Expenditure on Education, Jammu And Kashmir
(Rupees in lakhs)

Year	Normal Budget	Dev. Plan Budget	Total
1947-48	33.49		33.49
1953-54	46.12	6.00	52.12
1956-57	87.00	35.00	122.00
1957-58.	97.32	38.03	136.35
1958-59	101.00	52.00	152.00
1959-60	115.21	79.33	194.54

The institutions, which were started during the first five-year plan period, are: (1) colleges, 5; (2) teachers training schools — (post-matric), 3; (3) high schools, 29; (4) middle schools, 48; (5) central schools, 76; (6) lower high schools 12, (7) primary schools, 590 and (8) *maktabas* and *pathshalas*, 90.

THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN. — The aim of the Second Five-Year Plan has been to broadbase education and to increase the number of primary schools as quickly and as widely as possible. Along side of quantitative expansion of education, attention has been paid to the qualitative improvement. The government had, therefore, to lay emphasis on the training of teachers and during the plan period provision was made for the opening of four training schools and one training class for training teachers. At present, there are two training colleges and nine training schools. Arrangements have also been made to train teachers in two existing high schools at Leh and Kargil.

In the field of secondary education, it has to be noted that the state government have introduced higher secondary education so as to conform to the all-India pattern. This has been done by upgrading the high schools to the higher secondary status. The pattern of secondary education in the State in this respect has been designed on the pattern envisaged in the report of the All-India Secondary Education Commission. So far one girls' higher secondary school (in Kashmir) and 17 boys' higher secondary schools (nine in Kashmir and eight in Jammu Province) have been established. The specialized courses of studies provided in these schools have taken into consideration the needs of the localities concerned.

The Department has also implemented the Central Scheme for the expansion of elementary education and have already opened 280 schools under this scheme. Under the said scheme, 14 school buildings have also been constructed.

Another landmark in the field of education is the development of technical education in the State. The government have sanctioned liberal grants during the Second Five-Year Plan for the opening of industrial training institutes — one at Jammu and the other at Srinagar. These institutions have been set up on the pattern approved by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India. Instruction is provided in different trades like smithy, carpentry, weaving, calico printing, drawing, electrician, turner, motor mechanic and painting. One polytechnic institute and a regional engineering college have also been set up on the all-India pattern.

Girls' education shows a considerable progress. The number of girls in the schools before the first plan period was nearly 19,500 and now it has risen to more than 34,000. In 1953-54, only 372 girls were reading in the two girls' colleges and since that year their number too has risen to more than 1,000. From 1959-60 onwards, the State Government have sanctioned the implementation of Central Scheme for the expansion of girls' elementary schools, and special scholarships have also been awarded to girls for attending schools. Some residential quarters have been constructed for women teachers. Refresher courses have also been conducted to re-orientate the women teachers.

A comprehensive scheme for carrying out the educational survey of the Jammu and Kashmir State, based on All-India Survey, was taken up in July 1957. The aim of the survey is to identify and enumerate every distinct institution and elementary school area and to map out and delimit the areas served by new schools by suitable grouping of habitations and appropriate location of schools. The field-work in all the *tehsils* has been finished. The results of the survey — district and statewise — are ready with the Department of Education.

Physical education also shows a great progress. Sufficient care has been taken to promote games, sports and other activities in schools and colleges. Inter-school competitions in sports and other physical activities have also been encouraged. The Scout Movement has been revived in the State, and Youth Camps are being held regularly. Besides, the students of colleges and schools go on educational tours and excursions outside the State.

There is considerable expansion in the inspecting staff. The Government have now set up an education officer for each *tehsil* and one district inspector for each district.

This has improved inspection and eased the administrative bottlenecks, which arose as a result of enormous expansion.

CONCLUSION.—To sum up, much has been done for education in the State under the Second Five-Year Plan. The following table gives the details of the targets during the plan period and achievements at the end of the fourth year of the Plan:

TABLE 62

Physical Targets and Achievements of Selected Schemes on Educational Development, Second Five-Year Plan, Jammu And Kashmir.

Sr. No.	Name of Scheme.	Plan Target 1956-61	Achievements 1956-60
1.	Activity Basic Schools	1,500	1,118
2.	Conversion of Primary Schools into Basic Schools	150	75
3.	Audio Visual Units	2	2
4.	Refresher Courses	10	7
5.	Post Matric Training Schools	5	4
6.	Upgrading of Primary Schools into Senior Basic (class 6th, 7th or 8th)	500	404
7.	Upgrading of Middle Schools into High (9th & 10th)	150	129
8.	Improvement in Primary Schools (additional teachers)	500	323
9.	Conversion of High Schools into Higher Secondary	30	18
10.	Improvement in Secondary Schools (Additional teachers)	350	200
11.	Improvement in Colleges (additional staff, Lecturers and Demonstrators)	50	33
12.	Expansion of Inspectorate	20	19
13.	Polytechnic Institute	1	1
14.	Industrial Training Institute	2	2
15.	Youth Welfare Schemes (Provision)	Rs. 10-00	Rs. 6-50
16.	Scholarships (Provision)	Rs. 7-10	Rs. 5-55
17.	Construction Works (Provision)	Rs. 50-00	Rs. 45-45

OUTLINE OF EDUCATION IN KERALA **DURATION AND AGE-GROUPS**

Years in Schools					Years in Age	
16				Professional Courses in the University	Research and Post-graduate Studies	21
15					20	
14						
13				University Degrees	19	
12					18	
11	Teacher Training Certificate	Diploma Courses in Polytechnics	Certificate Courses in Technical Institutes	Pre-University	17	
10					16	
9					Post-Basic Schools	Three Years <i>Multipurpose & Junior Technical Schools</i>
8	14					
	13					
7	Senior Basic Schools	Three Years Upper Primary Stage			12	
6					11	
5					10	
4	Junior Basic Schools	Four Years Primary Stage			9	
3					8	
2					7	
1					6	
	Pre-Basic Schools	Nursery Schools			5	
					4	
					3	

BACKGROUND

Kerala has 15,003 square miles of land. This land which forms the extreme south-western part of India, buttressed on the East by the Western Ghats, her shores washed by the waves of one ocean and two seas has the hoary tradition of having the treasure land of the East for foreign nations in the past. It has mountains, rivers, lakes, lagoons, forests, ancient art and architecture. Kerala is the land of coconut palm.

The population according to 1961 Census is 16.87 millions. There is no part of India, where the density of population is as high as in this State. Based on the total area there are more than 1,000 persons to the square mile. The extreme intensity of population per square mile has given the highest percentage of the educated unemployed in India and the State is the poorest in its food needs. It imports maximum food nearly half from outside its own territory. About 13.1 per cent of the population in Kerala live in towns, while the remaining 86.9 per cent reside in villages. But the village system obtaining in the State is different from that in most other states in India. Kerala is a land of detached homesteads picturesquely scattered throughout the occupied area and surrounded by gardens of lush vegetation and evergreen trees. The density of population in most of the towns is not very much higher than that in some villages. In fact there are some villages where the density of population is higher than in neighbouring towns. There are only 13 towns in the State with a population of more than 25,000.

Nowhere else in India have so many religious faiths flourished as in Kerala. Oldest homes of Christianity in India and the earliest abode of Islam are in this State. Kerala is a land of temples and mosques, of cathedrals and synagogues. Sixty-one per cent of the people are Hindus, 22 per cent Christians and 16 per cent Muslims. Nearly 9 per cent of the total population belong to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. There are two main languages in the State. Nearly ninety per cent of the population have Malayalam as their mother-tongue. Tamil is spoken by nine per cent and the remaining one per cent speak other languages.

The main aim of education is to help men and women to live fuller and happier life in adjustment with their changing environment, to develop the best elements in

their own culture and to achieve social and economic progress which will enable them to take their place in the modern world and to live together in peace. Until this aim is achieved, our schools are doomed to fail. Fifty-five out of every 100 males and thirty-eight out of every 100 females are literate, thus making Kerala's average literacy 46.2 per cent, the highest in the country. It spends more than 1/3 of the state revenue on education. In 1957-58, it spent Rs. 9 crores out of the total revenue of Rs. 26½ crores and primary education alone consumed more than half of the total expenditure on education. The per capita expenditure in the lower primary schools is Rs. 23/-. It is Rs. 44/- in secondary schools. Kerala has a rich cultural tradition. In the realm of art, it is the land of *kathakali* (dance-drama) and Ravi Varma, the great Indian painter. It also gave modern India one of her greatest poets — Vallathol.

Education in Kerala during the modern period began with the historic proclamation of 1844 by the Maharaja of Travancore that for state employment preference would be given to those educated in English schools. The first English school in South India was started in 1834 and it was taken over by the then ruler of the former Travancore State and run as a free school from 1936. Cochin made substantial progress in education at the same time. In Malabar, enactment of the Madras Local Boards Act of 1834 gave an impetus in the field of education. The beginnings of an organised system of public education were made in the years following the famous Wood's Despatch of 1854 which gave direction to educational development in India during subsequent years. Throughout Kerala, Christian missionaries played an important role in the spread of education. The highest literacy in Kerala is mainly due to their commendable service for over a century and other communal organisations for a shorter period.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Till the integration of the states (Travancore and Cochin), the administration of the Department of Education was managed by one director of public instruction with the assistance of three divisional educational officers, two inspectresses of schools, nine district educational officers and fifty-seven inspectors of primary and middle schools.

Consequent on the formation of Kerala State with effect from 1-11-1956, the administrative set up of the Department was re-organised. Till now, there were three major re-organisations in three years' time, each time giving some reasons either for bifurcation or integration of the Department on the basis of functions or to suit certain persons. Every time a new government came up, it tried to reorganise administration according to its own fancy. There exist the government servants' conduct rules, but their effectiveness, everyone will admit, does not lie in their liberal application to petty

lapses on the part of permanent public servants but on the example that is set by the political leaders whom they have to serve during the period of their active service. It will be readily conceded that eventually the permanent officials will follow the standards of conduct and integrity set by the ministers. Rarely one officer will venture to go against the wishes of his minister. Frequent reorganisation and reshuffling are not at all conducive to a stable administration of any department. It evidently shows that there is something grievously wrong with the administrative set-up of the Department of Education. In education, especially one should be extremely cautious to implement new and drastic changes lest they should affect every citizen adversely. Prudence suggests that it is safe to have only one head of the department with proper decentralisation of powers to subordinate officers.

Till recently the entire administration of education was regulated by the minister in charge of the portfolio with a permanent secretary at the secretariat level, three directors (director of public instruction, additional director of public instruction and director for technical education), 2 deputy directors, 17 district educational officers and 119 assistant educational officers. There is a suggestion to transfer a person from the Administrative Services as the Director of Public Instruction.¹ The general view of the All-India Educational Advisory Board is against this. It recommends that men who have the requisite educational experience and qualifications should be appointed Director of Education. In the interest of the unity of the country, it is necessary to form the proposed Central Educational pool of top-rank educational officers at an early date — Indian Educational Service — as was in vogue and appoint directors of public instruction in various states from among them.

KERALA EDUCATION ACT

In the history of educational administration, Kerala Education Act stands out prominently as a landmark. The passing of the Bill by the Kerala Assembly, and its implementation gave birth to a seething volcano in the State and its eruption of feelings led to the grave unhappy consequences, the memory of which no citizen can obliterate from his mind. It is a history in itself.

Our Constitution places on the government the full responsibility for organising free and compulsory primary education and other (secondary, university, technical, professional, etc.) education on such terms and conditions as appear to the government

¹ Since writing this report, there were two more reorganisations of the Education Department: one on 15th Feb. 60 bringing an I.A.S. officer as the Joint Director in place of Addl. D.P.I. and the other on 23rd May, 60 making an I.A.S. officer as the D.P.I. for Administration and Personnel instead of the Joint Director.

practicable. The Kerala Government joined with other state governments and the Central Government in their determination to discharge this responsibility within the financial and other means and resources at its disposal.

If the above responsibility of the government is accepted, it follows that the government should be entrusted with corresponding powers to discharge those responsibilities. Organising free and compulsory primary education and making all possible and necessary arrangements for secondary, university, technical, professional and other education involves the use of public money and of the machinery of public administration. If this should be done, the government obviously should have necessary authority over the organisations through which these different forms of education are imparted.

It is this concept of government's responsibility for education accompanied by corresponding power to discharge that responsibility that forms the basis of all educational reforms that are being introduced in the various states of India. One may, in this connection, quote the example of Andhra whose government proposed to take over the overwhelming majority of private schools functioning in the State, of Madras where the government has introduced the system of free primary education which forces the private managements to run their schools without collecting any fee from the pupils; of the Punjab whose chief minister recently declared that his government proposed to nationalise all private schools, etc. Educational reform of one kind or another has been, and is being considered by the various state governments of India.

The Kerala Education Act, too, is intended to carry out these important objectives of educational reforms. The government through this Act pays the full salary of the teachers plus reasonable maintenance expenses to the managers. The government is thus taking full financial responsibility for primary and secondary education. The difference between the fees collected from secondary schools (that too after deducting concessions of various kinds to pupils belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, backward classes, families of N. G. Os. etc.) and the total amount that has to be paid by way of salary and maintenance expenses is met from public treasury and amounts to more than 1/3 of the annual state budget. The shouldering of such a responsibility by the government should naturally be accompanied by corresponding powers and authority for the government to discharge those responsibilities. It is this responsibility to finance and corresponding power to control, the educational institutions that have been incorporated in various provisions of the A. t.

For an impartial 'educationist-observer', the Education Bill is a milestone on the road of educational progress of the State. But viewed in the context of politics, it loses its lustre and glamour. An Act is necessary to control and guide the activities of the Department of Education in its various spheres.

As part of the standardisation process, the government have taken over all the schools, some 1,200 in number—run by the Malabar District Board, in addition to those run by the different municipal councils in the State. It was a financial commitment of government to the extent of about 70 lakhs of rupees.

STATE EDUCATION ADVISORY BOARD AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES

There are two statutory bodies directing education in the State, viz., the State Education Advisory Board and the Local Education Authorities. The constitution and the functions of the first body are given below.

1 For the purpose of advising the government on matters pertaining to educational policy and administration of the Department of Education, the government may, by notification in the State Gazette, constitute a State Education Advisory Board, consisting of officials and non-officials.

2 The Board shall consist of a chairman and not more than fifteen members including the chairman. The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Kerala, the Director of Public Instruction, the Director of Technical Education and the Director of Health Services shall be *ex-officio* members of the Board. The other members of the Board shall be appointed by government. Appointment of non-official members shall be from persons who are distinguished educationists or who have rendered eminent service to education, or who have had experience in the administration of education.

3 The government shall appoint one of the members to be the chairman of the Board.

4 The term of office of the member of the Board other than *ex-officio* shall be three years.

5 The government may prescribe the procedure to be followed at the meetings of the Board, and all incidental and ancillary matters for the proper working of the Board.

6 The Board shall present annually to the government a report as to the advice tendered to the government on matters coming before them and the government shall, on receipt of such report, cause a copy thereof, together with a memorandum explaining as respects the matters if any, where the advice of the Board was not accepted, the reasons for such non-acceptance to be laid before the Legislative Assembly.

The Local Educational Authorities have been formed on the basis of the directive given by Article 40 of the Constitution of India. It lays down that the State shall take steps to organise village *panchayats* and endow them with such powers and authority as

may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government. Advantage has been taken of this provision and the process of making the *panchayats* basic units of administration at the village level has been recently inaugurated. The main aim of such a step is to associate the people with the administration of education and to preserve and stimulate local interest in educational affairs.

Many of the powers now exercised by the officials of the Education Department and which do not call for any expert knowledge of education may be entrusted to local education authorities like *panchayats* or municipalities. In Mysore, they tried with village *panchayats* and district boards. After 10 years of experiments, the government realised that the transfer of control had not resulted in the expected spread of education. It was reported that "want of sufficient experience" and the existence of "personal, local or party interest" rendered these schools inefficient and the people had not advanced sufficiently "in education and in respect of public life," a necessary condition for the success of a scheme is the local control over education. In old Malabar, schools were under district boards and some of them were working fairly well. However much we may believe in the expert nature of educational science and in the art of teaching, it will be conceded by every unsophisticated person that a great deal of the subject matter and the organisation of elementary education may be safely left to the judgment of persons of average intelligence with no technical knowledge of the intricacies of child psychology or educational methods, provided they do not meddle with the technical aspects of teaching.

Each Local Educational Authority consists of the following seven members:

1. the district educational officer having jurisdiction in the local area—ex-officio member;
2. one member elected by the managers of aided schools in the local area from among themselves;
3. one member elected by the graduate teachers of government and aided schools in the local area from among themselves.
4. one member elected by the non-graduate teachers of government and aided schools in the local area from among themselves;
5. one member elected by the *panchayats* and municipal—councils or corporation in the local area; and
- 6 and 7. two members, being persons who have experience in education, nominated by the government.

The term of office of the members shall be three years.

The main functions of the Local Educational Authority are:

1. To assess the educational needs of the local area and prepare each year schemes for the development of education and submit the same to the government.

2. To supervise the implementation of the scheme of mid-day meals of school children;

3. To promote conferences, exhibitions or other measures calculated to create among the public an interest in education; and

4. To carry out such other functions as may be prescribed, viz., visiting schools to check up discipline, attendance, neatness, punctuality and enter the remarks in a register kept for the same.

But a warning may be sounded here that too much of decentralisation may lead to tyrannisation by the *panchayat*, which is composed of people of different vocations and political faiths. Similarly, too much of centralisation may make the administration too diluted and ineffective. However, decentralisation and control should be the key-note of administration.

But it is very necessary that these local bodies should be made to realise their responsibility and this can be done best by making them bear a portion of the cost of new schools. At the same time, government should definitely fix their contribution in respect of elementary education. I would point out that as long as elementary education continues to be financed wholly from the central revenue, the cost is bound to go up year by year. Elementary education is now a national concern but that does not mean that the whole cost of it should be made by central taxation.

In fact, it is not even quite fair to place the whole burden of elementary education on the central revenue, considering that at present some parts of the State are made to bear the cost with no reference to the amount of service they receive. Again, it is a matter of common observation that the interest of the average man in any undertaking varies with its financial responsibility and his personal knowledge. It makes every man in the village feel that he is contributing—however small the quota—towards the cost of the village school and you will see how quickly his interest awakens. He also feels that the success of his village school depends on his generosity, intelligent co-operation and vigilant supervision; and, then—but not till then—our elementary education will be permanently saved both from educational and financial bankruptcy.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION. — During the integration of Travancore and Cochin states in 1948-49 there were 4,063 primary schools (both lower and upper primary together). In 1958-59, on the formation of Kerala, the corresponding number was 8,622, in the new State, with

an enrolment of 17·12 lakhs of children. The quantitative upheaval has created serious problems in Kerala—site, buildings, accommodation, lavatories, equipment, mid-day meals to enumerate a few (1/3 of school are lacking in these). In democracy when there is a clamour for admission, the question of giving preference to quantity over quality is a major issue. The central problem of providing a purposeful education suited to many, of making it practical without loss on the cultural side, of making it serve the purposes of both a terminal and a preparatory education has remained unsolved inspite of attempted efforts at reform. The question may be posed in two ways. "Is half a loaf better than no loaf?" or "Is half a child better than no child"? Perhaps in a nascent democracy quality has to follow quantity.

FREE AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION. — It may be said that proportionately a large number of schools are available in Kerala, which explains the high standard of literacy compared to other states in India. The people in Kerala are deeply education-conscious. The urge to educate their children upto the maximum capacity is the aim of every parent and that evidently is the cause for the 80 to 85 per cent of the pupils of the age-group 6 to 11 attending schools. The small percentage who do not go to school is perhaps owing to poverty and the necessity to utilise their services at home to look after their younger brothers and sisters while the parents go for work. There is provision made in the Education Bill for free education to the age-group 6 to 14 and provides sufficient legal protection for compulsory education. The State has ample qualified teaching personnel.

This State has already committed itself to free and compulsory education upto the age of 14. In some of the areas of the State, compulsory education scheme up to the age of 11 has already been implemented and the policy of the government is to extend it progressively to other areas also. It may be suggested in this connection that the question of extending compulsory education scheme should be a phased programme, first 6 to 12 age-group, then 6 to 13 and finally 6 to 14, in each of the succeeding years from 1959-60 where compulsion is in force now. In other areas this will have to be

be a four-year programme beginning from the year of the introduction of compulsion; 6 to 11 in the first, 6 to 12 in the second year, 6 to 13 in the 3rd year and 6 to 14 in the fourth year.

The Kerala Government have accepted 6 plus as the minimum school age and as a first step towards implementing 6 plus stipulation, the age limit has been raised from 5 to 5½ plus with effect from June, 1959. No fee is levied in the first 8 standards, i.e., the whole of primary and middle stages and the first standard of the high school. The aim is to make the entire school education free.

SHIFT SYSTEM. — For want of accommodation, not for want of pupils or staff, schools are working in two shifts (the same teacher teaching two sets of children of Standards I to IV, coming for the forenoon and afternoon sessions) in the former Travancore State, comprising half of the whole re-organised State. There are now 3,181 schools working under the shift system covering 11.6 lakhs of children. Though this system provides for facilities at about half the cost, it has multifarious disadvantages. There is a perceptible difference in the standard of pupils in the shift and non-shift schools. It is an undisputed fact that the unnatural hours of work in the second shift-system would be an impediment to the growth of the children, who are naturally restless in the afternoon. The stifling of the extracurricular activities will affect them considerably. To concentrate on 3 R's without relieving the tedium by some other less arduous subjects or alternating them with pleasanter types of work such as games, art, craft, music, etc., is also a disqualification inherent in this system of education. It is the consensus opinion of educationists that unless this method of education is given up soon, greater calamities are inevitable since the administrative difficulties have reduced this system to a "negation of education". The problem facing the State to abolish shift system is that of providing additional accommodation for all the schools working under shift which may cost about 1.75 crores of rupees on a modest estimate. The teacher-pupil ratio fixed in the first four standards is 1:25, while that of the secondary standards is 1.40.

The duration of primary education has been reduced from 8 years to 7 (4 lower primary plus 3 upper primary) correspondingly compressing the course of studies. The new syllabus introduced in 1958 will cover as much as is being covered by 8 years. The course is an integrated one. The secondary school will commence from Std. VIII. In the lower primary classes (I-IV), there is no text-book other than the one for the study of the regional language. English is introduced in Standard V and Hindi in Standard VI. These are compulsory subjects. Almost all the schools are co-educational. In schools where there are no less than 200 girl pupils, provision has been made either for the teaching of music or needlework. Adequate steps are taken to impart instruction in Arabic to Muslim pupils in primary schools.

BASIC EDUCATION. — The scheme for the expansion of Basic education is progressing only very slowly. Out of 8,622 primary schools in the State there are only 614 Basic schools. Besides, there are 2 post-Basic schools and 1 post-Basic training college. Compact area scheme was followed by which schools in specified areas lying contiguous around Basic training schools are taken up for conversion into the Basic type. Standards I to III were converted in the first year and the other standards progressively in the succeeding years.

In the matter of re-orientation of primary education to fit in with the Basic Education Scheme, Kerala has broken new ground. The five-point programme chalked out by the All-India Basic Education Assessment Committee has been accepted by this State. As the original scheme of Basic Education is essentially intended for the benefit of villagers, it had to be modified and adapted to suit the needs and genius of the people here. Realising the importance of craft-centred education in the true sense of the term and the importance of scientific and technological developments affecting the people, the state government have introduced what may be described as "tool room method", which has already won the approval of the Government of India and the Central Advisory Board of Education. The system mainly consists of the provision of various simple old and modern tools and appliances in the primary school so that groups of children can become familiar with them and thereby acquire and develop their natural taste for using such tools and appliances and also acquire skill in so doing. The experiment is being tried in some 1,200 departmental schools in the State after giving intensive short term training to teachers and assistant educational officers. Except that excessive emphasis on any single tool or appliance like the *charka* is avoided, the system of craft-centred education adopted in Kerala is, in essence, similar to Gandhiji's scheme of education. The new system will be watched and assessed as to its suitability in preparing school children for the multi-purpose schools at the university stage. It is hoped that such a pattern will fulfil the twin tasks of education, viz., to develop proper citizenship and acquire skill for occupation.

MID-DAY MEALS. — Provision of mid-day meals for primary school children is a dire necessity in Kerala, where the rigours of the prevalent poverty are accentuated by overpopulation and food shortage. The magnitude of the problem had prevented the former governments of Travancore and Cochin and the government of the integrated State of Travancore-Cochin from implementing the scheme in anything more than a few select areas. The government, however, attach great importance to the need of providing mid-day meals not only because it would encourage children, particularly from the low income groups, to go to school, but also because it would serve as a health insurance measure for tens of thousands of children of the State. With this object in view, the government have decided to extend this beneficent, though costly, scheme to cover, according to a phased programme, all the primary schools in the State, thereby benefiting some 40 lakhs of pupils. At present, only 7 lakhs of pupils are fed. If the entire school-going population in the primary schools is to be given mid-day meal, it may require a sum of Rs. 2.7 crores.

The cost of a meal for each pupil should not exceed 6 p., and eighty per cent of the cost of meal involved should be borne by the government. The remaining cost should be met

from local contributions to be obtained by the feeding committee either in kind or in cash. It has not been possible to achieve much by way of public participation and the use of local resources. The general feeling is that education is the prime responsibility of the State.

NATIONALISATION OF TEXT-BOOKS. — The local government, in conformity with the directive of the Government of India and the policy adopted in other states, implemented the complete nationalisation of text-books. In 1957-58, the government prepared and published all the text-books in the language and non-language subjects. The text-books were prepared by committees of competent educationalists, in English, Malayalam, Sanskrit and Hindi. Non-detailed text-books were prescribed, but they were purchased and distributed by Government. In 1958, about eighty lakh copies of text-books were printed and distributed by government in addition to some 20 lakh copies of non-detailed books purchased and distributed. A central system of distribution was evolved, under which the text-books were supplied to the headmasters through co-operative societies established in the different schools in the State. Recently, the licensee system was also revived. Nationalisation has ensured the supply of text-books at reasonable prices. Another important effect of the standardisation has been the reduction of the number of text-books, particularly in lower classes.

Great care has been taken in the selection of the committees for the preparation of text-books. Only educationists having mature experience and holding right objectives and unbiased views are included in the committees.

To say that nationalisation of text-books will lead to indoctrination is to under-rate the powers of a teacher. If a teacher really wants to indoctrinate, he can do it even without a text-book. The teacher's faith in a political philosophy is likely to colour his entire teaching. The remedy lies not mainly in the text book but in the selection of teachers.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The State of Kerala has been in the forefront in reorganising secondary education on the pattern set by the Indian Ministry of Education. It has a total enrolment of 5.5 lakhs of pupils in the 871 high schools. The secondary and higher secondary courses are of three and four years' duration respectively. As the conversion of all high schools into higher secondary schools will be a phased programme, these two types of secondary schools will continue for some years to come. With the introduction of an integrated course of 7 years of primary education the entire period of secondary and higher secondary courses have become a 10 (7 plus 3) and 11 (7 plus 3 plus 1) year patterns. New curriculum for the secondary and higher secondary schools were drawn up as early as May, 1956. The

curriculum for the higher secondary school was mainly on the lines indicated in the draft syllabuses published by the All-India Council for Secondary Education, making only such changes and adjustments as were necessary to suit the special conditions in the State.

The original scheme was to provide different courses of study for the secondary schools and higher secondary schools. This would make the transfer of pupils from one school to another difficult. In view of the migratory nature of a considerable section of the school-going population, the government decided to give a common course for the secondary schools and the first three years of the higher secondary. The last year of the higher school was given a special syllabus of a high standard.

The syllabi under the reorganised pattern were prepared in such a way that the pupils of the final year of the higher secondary would have the same standard as of the junior intermediate class of the university. The syllabi would, thereby enable the pupils coming out of the higher secondary school to enter the three-year degree course or the professional course of the university. Observation and assessment of the work in the higher secondary schools during the past two years have shown that there has been a considerable improvement in the standard of the pupils, especially in the electives.

In the reorganised curriculum introduced in 1956-57, provision was made for the study of non-language core-subjects concurrently with the electives as envisaged in the pattern set by the Indian Ministry of Education. Electives have been provided not only under the technical, commercial, agricultural, home science and fine arts streams but also under humanities and sciences. These electives were introduced in 1957-58 in the second year of the stream of pupils under the reorganised set-up. But now the government feel that the course of studies under the electives system is too heavy for the average high school pupil and that there is overlapping of subjects. Experience also shows that there is less of specialisation not only in pre-university but even, in the degree course. So the government have now decided to drop electives under humanities and sciences. Electives, however, will continue under the diversified courses. This change in pattern was implemented progressively as the pupils in the first standard of high schools came to the higher classes only last year.

The diversified courses in technology, agriculture, commerce, etc., are not very popular. The pupils taking these courses have a feeling of doubt whether they would be allowed to pursue courses of studies in the university. Originally, when the scheme was drawn up, the intention of the government was to provide these courses for those who round off their education with the last standard. Hence, a certain degree of vocational competence was expected. But now government (1958) have revised their policy and have stated that

these courses are meant only to give a vocational bias and not vocational competence. Government have also stated that at the end of the S.S.L.C, pupils who take the diversified courses should be eligible for admission to the academic courses of the university if they so desire. But still, the pupils under the diversified streams have no chances of entering pre-professional courses leading to professional degree colleges. The reason is that in the professional colleges, the emphasis is on equipment in the basic sciences whereas in the multipurpose schools adequate grounding in the basic sciences is not provided. Under these conditions, it is not surprising that the courses offered by the multipurpose schools have not proved sufficiently attractive either for pupils or for the guardians. The guardians are extremely reluctant to send their children to a course of study, the future of which is uncertain. Out of a total of 871 secondary schools, only 110 have so far been upgraded into higher secondary and multipurpose schools. The higher secondary and multipurpose schools of Kerala follow closely the pattern set by the Indian Ministry of Education.

The main problem facing the Education Department of the State in the implementation of the new scheme as in the case of primary education is that of accommodation. Every school that is upgraded or converted into the higher secondary or the multipurpose pattern has to be provided with new buildings for the laboratory or the workshop. The average strength of a class is 40 and for purposes of practical work, each class has to be split up into two batches. The accommodation provided at the commencement of the course has proved inadequate in nearly all cases. Additional funds have, therefore, to be found for providing more rooms to these schools.

The second problem is that of equipment. There has been a considerable difficulty in securing adequate supply of tools and appliance because of the dearth of the requisite materials in the market. But in spite of this the Department has been able to equip properly all the higher secondary and multipurpose schools.

The third problem is the non-availability of technically qualified hands with experience to fill up the posts of instructors in technical education, mechanics and craft teachers. A scheme has been prepared by the Director of Research for the manufacture of many of the equipments required for the schools. If that project materialises, the situation would be eased.

When the stream of pupils now in Standard V reaching Standard XI in 1964-65, all the secondary schools will become higher secondary schools of 4 year duration. During the intervening period, all these schools have to be provided with adequate appliances and equipment to gear them up to the higher secondary level. The schools which have already

been upgraded as higher secondary schools are in fact overequipped without knowing the minimum standard required. It is, therefore, desirable to set a minimum standard for all higher secondary schools of the future and utilise the available funds to equip as large a number of schools as possible every year with the ultimate aim of equipping all schools by 1964-65.

At present there is no scheme for any kind of selection at the end of Standard VII. Pupils are promoted on the basis of their performance in the annual examination. Standard VIII, the first year of the higher secondary school, offers a common course for all. Diversification is contemplated only from Standard IX. The choice of the course of study is largely left to the pupil and his guardian. There is no machinery for proper guidance and counselling.

Some officers of the Department are being trained in vocational guidance. When at least one officer from each school gets trained, it will be possible to give guidance to children on a scientific basis.

Consistent with the remodelling of the secondary education pattern, public examination was also modified to suit the modern trend. The Board for Public Examinations, recognising the undue subjective element of examination system, introduced questions requiring short paragraph answers and new-type tests requiring one-word answers. Doubtful or marginal cases would be checked with the marks obtained at the internal examination in school for an adjudication and the moderation made only on this basis.

MAINTENANCE GRANT

The government have now undertaken the responsibility of paying teachers of schools under private management. According to this arrangement, the teaching staff of private schools is being paid by the government direct like government teachers with the result that the financial commitment involved for the management will be less. A uniform set of rules for the payment of maintenance grants to all aided schools in the State has been framed which are appended here under:

1. These rules define the circumstances under which maintenance grants may be given to schools.
2. Government reserve to themselves, notwithstanding anything in these rules, the right to refuse or to withdraw grant or any portion of it at their entire discretion.
3. The maintenance grant is intended for following purposes: (a) petty construction and repair and annual maintenance of school buildings; (b) purchase of educational appliances such as globes, maps, charts, apparatus, for teaching of history and geography

and allied subjects, and instruments for mathematical drawing; (c) laboratory equipments, if any; (d) repairs to furniture and its replacement; (e) office expenses and miscellaneous items including stationery and postage; (f) contingencies for purchase of chalk, dusters, cleaning materials, buckets, ropes, registers and forms, etc.; (g) purchase of books and periodicals relating to education other than books for school library; (h) raw materials and equipment; (i) kindergarten and sewing appliances (girls' schools only); (j) water charges; (k) electric charges; and (l) sweeping charges in lower primary schools (basic and non-basic) and in upper primary schools with or without lower primary section (Basic or non-basic). No full time staff shall be appointed in these schools for sweeping work.

4. (a) The maximum annual grant for item (a) under Rule 3 above shall be as follows:

- (i) Tiled buildings of all types of schools - 5 nP. per sq. ft. of floor space;
- (ii) Thatched buildings of all types of schools - 12 nP. per sq. ft. of floor space;
- (iii) The maximum grant for a school per annum is Rs. 360/-

(b) For items (b) to (k) under Rule 3, the annual grant shall be based on the number of classes which are as follows: .

	Maximum for a class	Maximum for the school
High School Classes	Rs. 120	Rs. 1,200/-
Upper Primary (Basic & Non-basic)	80	800/-
Lower Primary School (Basic and Non-basic)*	48	480/-
Basic Training Schools	240	800/-
Non-basic Training Schools	60	200/-

The grants under (a) and (b) shall be the actual expenditure subject to the above rates and subject to the maximum fixed.

(c) For item (a) under Rule 3, the annual grant shall be fixed at the following rates.

One teacher, Lower Primary School Rs. 24/- per annum

Lower Primary School Rs. 80/- „

Upper Primary School with or without Primary section Rs. 80/- per annum

5. The District Educational Officer will be the officer competent to sanction maintenance grants. The sanction of the grant at the rates prescribed in Rule 4 above will depend on the merit and standard of the particular institution, as tested by the conditions prescribed in the rules or orders that may be issued by government or the Director of Public Instruction.

6. Fifty per cent of the maintenance grant calculated on the basis of the actual expenditure during the previous year or on the basis of an approximate estimate when

maintenance grant is sanctioned for the first time under these rules may, on an application made for the purpose in the form appended be paid to the manager/correspondent in advance in April or in the first week of May every year so as to enable the managements to carry out the annual repairs and maintenance to school buildings and furniture and equipments during the midsummer vacation and to purchase essential items of articles referred to in Rule 3 in time before the schools re-open. The applications for maintenance grant and the spare copies should be accompanied by a financial statement and a declaration by the manager/correspondent in the form prescribed for the purpose. An audit certificate of accounts of the school for the previous year should also be furnished in the case of each school receiving grant of above Rs. 1,000. The certificate to be attached should be one issued by a qualified auditor under the Companies Act.

7. The maintenance grant will be sanctioned by the district educational officer as soon as the applications are received and the amount, less the advance drawn will be placed at the disposal of the manager/correspondent. Grants may be claimed and drawn by the management in bills duly passed and countersigned by the district educational officer, who will send to the Director of Public Instruction and the controller a consolidated list showing the amounts sanctioned by them as maintenance grants. The consolidated list of grants will be sent by the sanctioning authority immediately after sanction is accorded and before the grant bills are countersigned. This procedure will also be followed in the case of advance grants. In the sanctions of final grants the sanctioning authority will also record a certificate that the grants are in accordance with rules and that unutilised grants have been taken into account in fixing the annual grants. One copy of the application and enclosure will be sent by the district educational officer to the Director of Public Instruction along with the statement. The manager/correspondent will keep separate accounts regarding the government grant and other incomes for the maintenance of the school and the expenditure incurred on the account.

8. Form 71 appended to the Travancore Financial and Account Code shall be used with relevant modifications, for submission of bills for maintenance grants.

9. During inspection, the educational officer will with reference to the school records and by physical verification check whether the maintenance grant has been properly and fully utilised. The supervisors and higher authorities in the P.W. Department are also authorised to inspect the aided schools and check the utilisation of the maintenance grant for items (a) and (d) in Rule 3.

10. Excess, if any, in the maintenance grant sanctioned for a year will be carried over to the next financial year.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Of the 8,12,103 teachers of different categories, only 11,957 are untrained. The State has 80 training institutions for undergraduates and 11 post-graduate training colleges. In addition to these, there is a post-graduate Basic training college which offers in-service training in Basic education. There is also a post-graduate college of education, which offers the M.Ed. courses to trained teachers.

From the year 1958-59, training qualification has been made compulsory for the recruitment of teachers to secondary schools. Nearly all untrained teachers recruited formerly have been deputed for training this year.

In-service education is given through seminars, week-end courses, vacation courses, workshops and refresher courses organised by the Extension Services departments of the training colleges at Trivandrum, Trichur and Calicut. There is no in-service education programme for teachers with a view to enabling them to secure Masters' Degree in different subjects.

There is a great difficulty in getting teachers for technical subjects and crafts with the result that several of the multipurpose schools are without an adequate staff. Loan of staff from the engineering, agricultural or industrial departments is not possible, in view of the higher scales of pay prevailing in those departments. There is no dearth of teachers for the academic subjects. The State has a large number of trained and experienced teachers who can teach in higher secondary schools even though they do not possess Masters' degrees. Experience in the field of teaching is often more valuable than a Master's degree.

In March 1958, the state government appointed a committee to advise the government on all questions relating to training and recruitment of teachers. On the advice of the committee, the government have adopted the policy that primary education should be of the Basic pattern and reorganised the training course on the same pattern. It is, therefore, necessary that the teachers who are already in service should be given a reorientation course to enable them to adjust themselves to the new pattern. The state government have, therefore, directed that the teachers' training course for primary school teachers should be of 2 years' duration with 200 working days in each year. Curriculum for the training course will be divided into two parts, viz., (a) General Education and (b) Professional course.

General Education consists of: (1) Regional language for 2 years, and (2) General English and Composition, (3) Mathematics, (4) General Science, and (5) Social studies for

one year. The professional course includes both theory and practical work and is to be closely related to the essential principles of Basic education which have been accepted for primary education in the State.

The selection for training is done by the State Public Services' Commission with the help of the Education Department. There is a dearth of really good craft teachers and consequently the scheme of Basic education either in its original form or in the reorientated form has fallen into disrepute. The following steps may be suggested to overcome this difficulty:

1. Technical institutions to train craftsmen with sufficient literary qualifications should be started in more centres as there is a thirst for technical education, due to the new vistas opened up for such trained persons; and

2. Standardised craft equipments for crafts introduced in schools may be arranged to be manufactured in organisations like the industrial estates, production-cum-training centres, government workshops (engineering), *khudi* and village industries under expert guidance.

INSPECTION

The present system of inspection of schools is considered as perfunctory, that the time spent by the inspector at any particular place is insufficient, that the greater part of the time is taken up with routine work like looking into the administrative aspect of the school and cursory checking of accounts. There is not enough time devoted to the academic side and contacts between inspectors and teachers are casual. The number of schools entrusted to the care of a district educational officer and an assistant educational officer is too large for him to enable him to acquaint himself with their work and appreciate their problems; nor is he in a position to advise and guide the teaching staff in improving the work of the school. Each district educational officer has under him from 30-75 high schools and training schools together while each assistant educational officer has about 60-100 primary schools.

If the role of the inspector is conceived as one to advise and guide the teachers in their work and to do it with diligence and care as it deserves, he will have his hands full with this work without any additional responsibilities of administrative job. If the officer is saddled with inspection and administration he will be more inclined to be an administrator rather than an adviser in academic matters and may even stand in the way of friendly relations between teachers and the inspector. The true role of an inspector as put by the International Team of Experts should be to study the problems of each school and view them comprehensively in the context of educational objectives, to formulate suggestions for improvement and to help the teachers to carry out his advice and recommendations. Therefore, there should be two categories of officers, one meant for administration and the

other exclusively meant for inspection. The officer on the inspection branch may be called the Superintendent of Schools or as recommended by the Secondary Education Commission, the Educational Adviser.

Inspecting officers are expected to keep themselves acquainted with the educational needs and progress of different parts under their jurisdiction, meet persons who are interested in matters educational and render every help and advice to individuals and bodies engaged in educational activities to further the progress of education and improve the quality. No inspecting officer should be entrusted with the inspection work of more than 200 teachers a year, whatever may be the number of schools.

The educational adviser or the chief inspector should possess high academic qualifications and should have had teaching experience in schools for at least 10 years or should have been the headmaster of a high school for a minimum period of 3 years or may be one among the qualified staff of training colleges.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Education can be broadly classified as general and technical. The two had always been kept separate for the purpose of direction and control. Technical institutions were formerly under heads of technical departments or the government. With the rapid growth of technical education the need arose for a separate agency to be in charge of it. Fully realising the vital role of technical education in equipping youths for the new life of industrial progress that awaits them, the Government of Kerala have revamped the existing system with the active co-operation of the Union Ministry of Education. The post of a director of technical education was created in this context in 1957 with a view to place all technical institutions under the control of a duly qualified and responsible officer. The director is now in charge of all such institutions which were until recently under the control of the university and the Industries Department. The control over engineering colleges has not yet been transferred to him, but the intention is to do so in due course. A State Board of Technical Education has been constituted in consultation with the All-India Council of Technical Education for the purpose of co-ordinating the development of technical education in the State.

At present the State has 3 engineering colleges and 13 polytechnics. Thus facilities have been provided for a sufficient number of students to undertake technological studies. It is proposed to start two more engineering colleges and four more polytechnics. With a view to giving a technical bias to general education and to provide for persons who can take up jobs immediately as soon as they get out of schools, the state government have decided to establish 18 junior technical schools of which 9 were already started in 1960.

HIGHER EDUCATION

It does not fall to the lot of all governments to sponsor the founding of a new university which is in fact the key stone of the entire educational system, the sheltering canopy for regional and national culture and fine arts. The Kerala University which came into being on the 30th August 1957, intends "to provide for the conservation, promotion and developments of Kerala art and culture and the Malayalam language and for instruction through Malayalam in all educational institutions of the State and to provide greater facilities for post-graduate study and original research in all branches of learning by establishing centres of post-graduate study and original research in different parts of the State." A completely democratic constitution enables the University to have the fullest benefit of the services and association of elected representatives of constituent colleges, school local bodies, trade unions and cultural interests. The University is a semi-autonomous body and is left free to concentrate on the tasks it has set for itself, besides exercising effective academic control over the constituent and affiliated colleges.

The number of colleges maintained by government is 24 and by private management is 51 with a total enrolment of 38,574 students. The distribution of colleges over different fields is as follows: arts and science (45), oriental studies (7), law (2), *ayurveda* (1), medicine (2), agriculture (1), veterinary (1), teacher education (11) and engineering (5). The total enrolment of these institutions is given in the following table

TABLE 63
Student Enrolment in Colleges, Kerala, 1959-60

	Men	Women	Total
AFFILIATED COLLEGES			
Arts & Science and Oriental studies Colleges	23,309	9,718	33,027
Oriental Title Institutions	205	106	311
Professional Colleges	4,119	829	4,948
Total	27,633	10,653	38,286
UNIVERSITY TEACHING DEPARTMENTS			
Department of Education (M Ed. Course)	6	2	8
Department of Politics (M.A. in Politics)	20	4	24
Department of Psychology (M.A. in Psychology)	6	8	14
Department of Statistics (M.Sc. in Statistics)	24	2	26
Department of Marine Biology (M.Sc. in Marine Biology & M.Sc. in Oceanography)	11	5	16
Total	67	21	88
Grand Total	27,700	10,674	38,374

Out of the above total enrolment, 31,834 were studying arts, science and oriental studies, 30 fine arts, 321 law, 1,524 education, 1,169 engineering, 1,774 commerce, 916 medicine, 225 *ayurveda*, 237 agriculture and 344 veterinary science.

Besides English Compulsory Part I, tuition was imparted in second languages, viz., Hindi, Malayalam, and a few European languages. Pre-University courses were started in 1956 in all the colleges and the Junior Intermediate Classes were stopped.

For extending the scope for studies and research, the University has already plans for opening an institute of oceanography and an institute of research in applied sciences. A research wing is shortly to be constituted under the Kerala University for the study of the History of Kerala.

The University has also inaugurated a series of extension lectures intended to carry modern knowledge in science and the humanities to the common people. With the aid of funds placed at its disposal by the government, the University is aiding private colleges to enhance the salaries of the staff. The total expenditure during the year under various heads came to Rs. 52 lakhs.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

The social education activities in the Community Projects, Intensive Development and National Extension Services Blocks were transferred to the control of the Education Department in 1957. The number of social education centres during the year was 32 with 5 social education organisers. The centres conducted a variety of educational activities. With the help of adult literacy classes conducted by the centres, it was seen that 15,000 men and women were made literates during the year. Instruction in one or more cottage industries was also imparted. Cultural activities were also undertaken by these centres. Formation of different clubs, societies, distribution of milk were also attended to by the organisers with the co-operation of the public. Some people in certain centres were educated about the Japanese method of cultivation. Some centres demonstrated the best control measures.

The audio-visual mobile unit, publication of the monthly bulletin and vocabulary research unit for collecting single words in Malayalam continued to contribute their share to the development of social education. The total expenditure for social education during 1959-60 was Rs. 83,720/-.

The library movement in the State which was organised by the State *Granthasala Sangham* was brought under the control of a library board constituted with the Director of Public Instruction as the chairman. For guidance and promotion of literary standards,

a Kerala Sahitya Academy was instituted with eminent men of letters in Malayalam as members. There were about 2,000 libraries affiliated to the *Sangham* and the aggregated amount paid towards grant to libraries in 1957 amounted to Rs. 2,55,930.

ARTS SCHOOLS

Special schools catering to the artistic and cultural needs of the community have also been developed. The State is running three music academies, two painting schools and an academy of fine arts where *kathakali*, *bharatha-natyam* and other art forms are taught and fostered.

The Kerala *Kalamandalam*,* which the great poet Vallathol brought to life, has been re-organised so as to become a living centre of Kerala dance and allied art forms. The Kerala *Sahitya* Academy and the *Sangeetha Nataka* Academy have also been placed on secure foundations, with the active association of literary and art associations, representative men of letters and devotees of art and culture.

OTHER ITEMS

The government also pays special attention to the education of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward communities and of handicapped children—deaf, dumb and blind. The education of the juvenile delinquents in the State was carried on by the certified school at Trivandrum which is one of the oldest of its kind in India. There is one reformatory school in Kozhikode also. The Scout Movement working under the control and guidance of the Boy Scouts Association formed an essential part of school activity and progressed well in the various schools in the state during the year. The N.C.C. and A.C.C. sections also progress well.

CONCLUSION

The progress has thus been all round and comprehensive, covering the entire field of educational endeavour. No other state maintains such a wealth of educational institutions of every grade ranging from the lowest to the highest. No other state spends such a large share of its income on education and no other state can boast of such high percentage of literacy. These are certainly matters of legitimate pride.

THE STATE

The new Madhya Pradesh came into existence on 1st of November, 1956. It comprises Madhya Bharat, Vindhya Pradesh, Bhopal and Mahakoshal (Hindi Area of old M.P.) These four regions have 43 districts with a total population of 3,23,94,375 and an area of 1,71,210 sq. miles. Thus it is the largest state of India. The four regions have come together as a result of States Reorganisation. It is not possible to know M.P. without knowing all the four regions. Every region has a long history of its educational, cultural, commercial and political development over a period of several hundred years. It is true that Hindi language is the great link binding the four regions but really there are not four but forty brands of Hindi in the four regions. It is also true that the majority of the people follow the same religion and are bound together by similar religious ties. But any casual visitor would discover an ocean of diversity under the surface of political unity. Every region is a conglomeration of different sub-cultures, customs, manners, dialects, traditions and habits. In fact, there is a rich diversity in all walks of life which would fascinate any social scientist.

Truly the most gigantic problem of M.P. is the integration of all the various patterns of life and administration. The task would be easy in a totalitarian atmosphere but here the attempt is to preserve the best of every region and to bring in uniformity in the administration and behaviour patterns so far as it is essential for a strong and efficient administration. This objective calls for the closest scrutiny of every practice, procedure and behaviour pattern in every walk of life. To the extent that this scrutiny is objective and impartial, the pace of integration would be fast and satisfactory. Alas! how painfully slow is the pace of integration!!

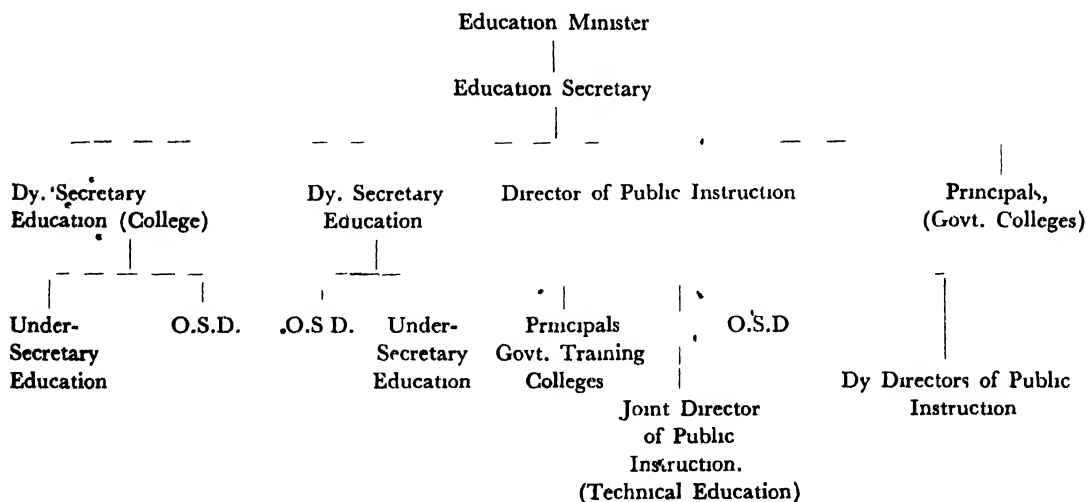
Some great dreamers visualised a new M.P. and some easy-chair politicians exclaimed on the 1st of November 1956 that the new and great M.P. has been born and lo! it is running ahead. Perhaps more painful than the pangs of new birth is the slow pace of the new born babe! But let not impatience and anxiety cloud your vision. This new-born is destined to greatness and richness because (I wish to tell you in confidence: It is

born with a silver spoon in its mouth! Mr. G. Ramchandran, Secretary, Gandhi National Memorial Fund is a great admirer of new M.P. He is fascinated by our great potentialities and vast resources. Isn't it marvellous that the new-born has hypnotised a great visionary like Ramchandran? And I have no doubt that there are thousands of Ramchandrans in India.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

Let us keep away from this business of hypnotism, till we traverse the high-ways and by-ways in the world of education in the new M.P. What is the picture of education that the new M.P. presents? There are 29,615 primary schools, 2,628 secondary schools (middle and high), 14 polytechnics and more than a hundred colleges. There are 104 Basic training colleges and normal schools and 10 post graduate teachers training colleges. There are three universities—Vikram (at Ujjain), Jabalpur and Sagar. There is a music university—Indira Sangeet Academy at Khairagarh, Dist. Durg.

What is the administrative machinery which runs such a large number of educational institutions spread over several hundred miles? The existing set-up is as follows:

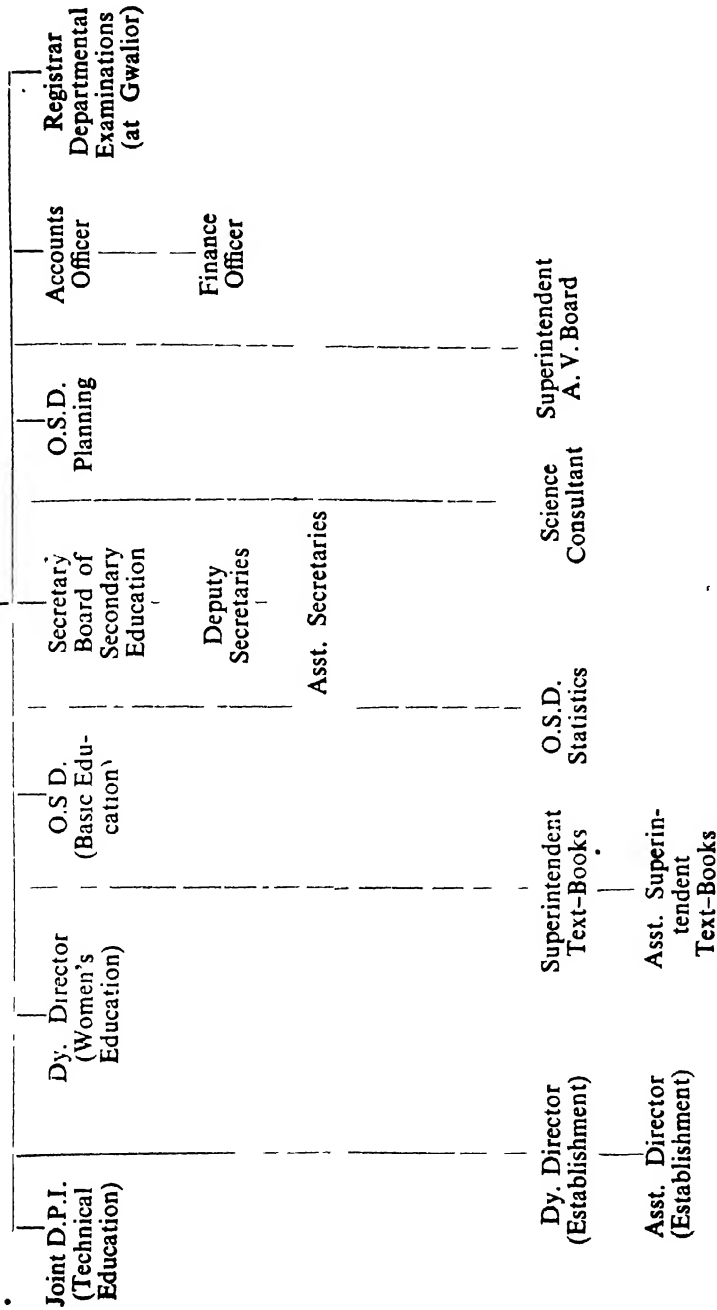


The Director of Public Instruction, under the guidance of the Education Secretary and the Education Minister, carries out all the educational policies of the government in the field of pre-primary education, Basic and primary education, secondary education, technical education and teacher education at all levels. There is a proposal to create a directorate of university education. At present the Education Secretary is directly responsible for the collegiate branch.

EDUCATION DIRECTORATE

(Headquarters Staff)

Director of Public Instruction



The D.P.I. has about 90,000 employees under him and about 1,200 of them are gazetted officers with drawing and disbursing powers. He has under him nine educational divisions with headquarters at Gwalior, Indore, Ujjain, Bhopal, Rewa, Jabalpur, Bilaspur, Raipur and Hoshangabad. Every division comprises of three or four districts. It is under a divisional officer in the scale of Class I State Education Service. Each district has a district inspector of schools and several assistant district inspectors of schools. There is a district librarian in most of the districts provided under the scheme of Government of India 'Improvement of Library Service' which was started in 1955.

There have been for many decades Men's Branch and Women's Branch separately for boys' education and girls' education in Mahakoshal Region. Equivalent to D.S.E., there was the inspectress of schools in State Education Service Class I. With effect from April, 1960 the two branches have been merged, and the Class I posts of Inspectress of Schools have been abolished. The D.S.E. is now in charge of both boys' and girls' schools in his division. The classic Mandamus petition by a lady officer claiming seniority over all the male officers is a landmark in the annals of education in M.P. The M.P. High Court rules that so long as the government maintained Men's Branch and Women's Branch separately, there was no cause of grievance for the lady officer in question. Perhaps this merger is in keeping with the fashion of the day and would result in more efficient and cogent administration.

TABLE 64

Second Five-Year Plan and Education, M.P.

Branch	Amount (Rupees in lakhs)
Primary education	898 05
Secondary education ..	329 99
University education ..	305 87
Technical education ...	275 32
Other Items ..	118 60
Total	1,927.83

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Now let us glance at the picture of primary education in M.P. Pre-primary Education in M.P. has very little to show. There are two pre-primary training institutes—one at Jabalpur (government) and the other at Indore (non-government). Their output of trainees is about 150. It is reported that there are about 200 pre-primary schools, most of which are run by voluntary organisations getting government grants-in-aid. The expenditure on this account in 1960-61 was Rs. 1,50,000.

There are seventy-seven Basic training colleges and normal schools for training teachers for primary, middle, junior and senior Basic schools. Twenty-seven new Basic training colleges have been started in the different parts of the State in July, 1960. Thus the total number of Basic training colleges would be 104 and their annual out-put of trained teachers would be 10,400.

So far only six of these institutions are exclusively for ladies. To meet the increasing demand for trained lady teachers, the government have recently decided that 15 lady teachers would be admitted to every Basic training college and normal school in M.P. The duration of training for both middle pass and matriculates is one year. The new policy of the government is that only matriculates should be admitted for training. Exception has to be made in the case of women—where matriculate women are not available, middle pass would continue to be admitted for some time. Teachers under training get full salary in Madhya Bharat and Bhopal regions. But in Mahakoshal and Vindhya Pradesh regions, they only get a small stipend and no salary. The new policy of the government is that all teachers under training should get full salary at all levels. Thus, the stage is set for achieving the targets of the Third Five-Year Plan with regard to compulsory primary education for all children between the ages of 6 and 11 years.

There are in all 29,615 primary schools enrolling about 18 lakhs of pupils. In all rural areas, there is co-education at the primary level. In some cases in the urban areas there are separate schools for boys and girls. In Madhya Bharat, Vindhya Pradesh and Bhopal regions, all the primary schools are run and entirely controlled by the government. In the Mahakoshal Region, the local bodies known as "*Janpad*" in the rural areas and municipalities and corporations in the urban areas are responsible for providing primary education. These local bodies receive grants-in-aid from government ranging from 50 per cent to 100 per cent of the total approved expenditure.

The duration of primary education is five years in Madhya Bharat, Vindhya Pradesh and Bhopal regions. Only in Mahakoshal region, it was four years. For bringing uniformity in the pattern of primary education all over the State, the fifth class has been

added in all the four-year primary schools in the Mahakoshal region. An integrated syllabus has come into force in all the primary schools of M.P. since July 1959. This new syllabus is based on the syllabus formulated by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Sevagram, and includes different types of craft-work and activities. For the inspection and control of these several thousand primary schools, there is a net-work of assistant district inspectors of schools. In smaller districts, there are ten assistant district inspectors of schools and in bigger districts there are sixteen to twenty of them. The number of assistant district inspectors of schools is increasing along with the increase in the new primary schools in every district. The policy of the government is that there should not be more than 50 primary schools in the range of every assistant district inspector of schools.

The Education Department has recently completed a comprehensive survey of primary education in the State. It is hoped that this survey would be published shortly. This survey would form the basis for the provision of compulsory primary education during the Third Five-Year Plan. As a pilot project, the work of compulsory primary education has been started in 21 selected N.E.S. Blocks. As many as 1,094 residential quarters for lady teachers in rural areas have been constructed with the aid of the Government of India.

BASIC EDUCATION

In 1958, the state government have constituted a statutory Board of Basic Education. The function of the board is to advise government in all matters relating to Basic education. In the Mahakoshal region, all the normal schools for the training of men and women teachers adopted the Basic pattern prior to 1956. In the new M.P., the government decided that all training institutions for teachers should adopt Basic pattern. So, today, we have no training institutions running on the old pattern. But this distinction continues at the post-graduate level. In 1955, post-graduate Basic training colleges were started at Bhopal and Jabalpur under the Government of India Scheme. In 1958, another post-graduate Basic training college was started at Ujjain. In addition to these three institutions, there are six post-graduate training colleges which are run on the old pattern. From July 1960, the government have decided that all post-graduate training colleges would adopt the Basic pattern. The tenth post-graduate training college has been started at Gwalior in July 1960. It has also been decided to shift the P.G.B.T. College, Jabalpur to Bilaspur—the old Prantiya Prashikhan Mahavidyalaya (Spence Training college) continues to serve the Jabalpur division from Jabalpur. Thus, there would be one post-graduate training college in every educational division. Vindhya Pradesh region would have two—one at Rewa and the other at Chhattarpur. Every college admits 128 in B. Ed., and seven colleges have the M. Ed. class with 10 students in each.

True, it is not enough to have Basic training colleges. The real problem is to have new Basic schools and to convert the thousands of primary schools into Basic institutions. The picture is not very encouraging in this respect. Perhaps we have only 3,000 Basic schools. The task of converting the several thousand traditional primary schools into Basic schools is staggering. And mark you, it is a national problem. The National Seminar on Basic Education held at Hansbavi (Mysore) in 1958 under the guidance of Acharya Vinoba Bhave and the National Seminar held at Allahabad under the guidance of Dr. K. L. Shrimali in 1959 have given serious thought to this gigantic problem. The scheme of orientation to Basic pattern devised by Sri G. Ramchandran has been accepted by the country as the only solution to this problem. Several states of India are going ahead with this scheme of orientation. M.P. has taken a good start in this field. In June 1959, Sri. G. Ramchandran conducted a one-week seminar at Pachmarhi and provided guidance and inspiration to all workers in the field of Basic education. We have heartily approved the scheme of orientation to the Basic pattern and the following steps have been taken:

1. Celebration of Basic Education Week and State Basic Education Seminar. The first Seminar was held at Schore in January 1958, the second at Kundeshwar in January 1959 and the third at Bijalpur in January 1960.

2. Organisation of training courses for the inspectorate at every post-graduate basic training college.

3. The State Basic Education Seminar at Bijalpur is a landmark in the development of Basic education, because 75 heads of basic training institutions formulated their individual schemes and presented them in general assembly at Bijalpur. These schemes include: (1) improvement of all Basic schools within 5 miles of training institution; (2) orientation of all traditional primary schools to the Basic pattern within 5 miles of the training institution; (3) provision of mid-day meals to the children in as many schools as possible; (4) on the pattern of the work done in Madras State to obtain public cooperation and seek peoples' participation in repair and white wash of the school building, provision of equipment, furniture and other material, collection of books for school library, construction of new building, etc; (5) cooperation with the inspectorate in the inspection and supervision of primary schools within five miles of the training institution; (6) organisation of workshops, seminars, conferences and training courses for the teachers of the primary schools within five miles of the training institution; and (7) publication of useful material for teachers of Basic schools.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

There were three boards of secondary education at the time of the formation of the new State—the Mahakoshal Board, the Madhya Bharat Board and the Ajmer Board. The

new Secondary Education Act has come into force from April 20, 1959 and a statutory Board of Secondary Education has been constituted for M.P. The D.P.I. is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Board of Secondary Education and there are 49 members representing different types of interests pertaining to secondary education. The Central Office of the Board has started functioning at Bhopal and the two sub-offices would continue to function at Gwalior and Jabalpur till suitable accommodation is available at Bhopal. This Board is responsible for prescribing syllabi and conducting examinations under the provisions of the Act. It is conducting the following examinations at present:

1. Intermediate Examinations in arts, science, commerce and agriculture;
2. Eleven Year Course in multipurpose secondary schools,
3. Eleven Year Course in higher secondary schools,
4. Ten Year Course in high schools,
5. Agriculture high schools, and
6. *Kala Niketan* (Technical)

The new Secondary Education Act empowers the Board of Secondary Education to conduct the Teachers' Training Certificate Examination in future. At present the Teachers' Training Certificate Examination is conducted by the D.P.I.

At present there are 1,978 middle schools, 650 high schools, higher secondary schools and multipurpose higher secondary schools in M.P. Efforts are being made to upgrade the existing high schools to higher secondary schools as soon as possible. There is an increasing demand for more high schools everywhere. The government high schools, higher secondary schools and multipurpose higher secondary schools are controlled by the divisional education officer. He has wide administrative powers for the appointment of almost all employees in the school and financial powers of sanctioning expenditure up to a limit of Rs. 50,000 for all the establishments under his control. The appointment of lecturers in the scale of Rs. 150-350 and career master in the scale of Rs. 150-400 is done by the D.P.I. The appointment and transfer of all gazetted officers is done by the government. The divisional education officer is free to transfer all non-gazetted employees and class III and IV employees anywhere in his division. The D.P.I.'s sanction is necessary for all inter-divisional transfers.

The pay scales for the principals of the multipurpose higher secondary schools is Rs. 310-600. The scale of the principals of the higher secondary schools is Rs. 250-500. There are six posts of lecturers for every higher secondary school in the scale of Rs. 150-350. From July 1960, two new posts of assistant masters have been created for every higher secondary school.

The government took a very bold step in July 1958—when it was declared that no eligible student should be refused admission in any school. During the last two years, the decision has resulted in the opening of hundreds of new sections in the various classes in secondary schools all over the State.

. In order to promote the education of the girls, a senior lady officer of Class I Service has been recently appointed as the Deputy Director of Public Instruction in-charge of girls' education. The appointment of a state level committee for women's education is under active consideration of the government.

The policy of the government is to encourage non-government enterprise in secondary education by giving liberal grant-in-aid. There is a provision of Rs. 11,28,000 grant-in-aid for building and equipment to non-government institutions in the budget of 1960-61. The rules of grant-in-aid prevalent in all the four regions have been unified and would come into force from the current session.

Rupees thirteen lakhs are spent annually in the distribution of scholarships to deserving students. They are awarded on the basis of merit-cum-poverty. Efforts are being made to have a uniform pattern of scholarships in the four regions.

Under the Government of India Scheme, there are Extension Services Departments in five post-graduate training colleges at Jabalpur, Raipur, Dewas, Rewa and Bhopal. The Extension Services have been successful in injecting a new life in secondary schools of their area. They have organised workshops and training courses for several hundred teachers. The Government of India have also sanctioned a loan of Rs. 10 lacs for the construction of hostels in five post-graduate training colleges.

THE TASK AHEAD

The first task is to unify the existing practices and procedures and to evolve a uniform pattern. It has been realised in the new M.P. that sound educational administration is the basis of all good education.

It has been realised that in the new and big State, efficiency in educational administration can be achieved through decentralisation. In every region, there is a long standing tradition of centralising power and authority at the level of either the state government or the directorate. This is also true of other states in India because they have inherited it from the British rule. Now it has been realised that if red-tape and delay are to be reduced there must be more delegation of powers—both administrative and financial all along the line. After careful consideration it has been decided to decentralise the power and authority vested in the state government and the Director of Public Instruction. In

a few months, the government would issue orders in this behalf. The D.P.I. will have wider powers and authority in all administrative and financial matters. The divisional officers will get new administrative and financial powers exercised by the D.P.I. at present. The district inspectors of schools will have new administrative and financial powers exercised by the divisional officers at present.

An earnest attempt is being made to democratise administration by providing ample opportunities to teachers and administrators to work together in the formulation and implementation of all new schemes and policies. There are periodical conferences and seminars at the district, regional and state level.

New opportunities are provided to all workers in the field of experimentation and exchange of ideas. It has been realised that the educational institutions can become dynamic and enthusiastic if they are given more freedom in planning their day-to-day work. In pursuance of this policy, the Director of Public Instruction has recently launched upon a new programme of exchange of professors in training colleges. According to this programme, the best professors in the training colleges would be sent to other training colleges in the State for a period of four to six weeks. In addition to extension lectures, the visiting professor would actually teach the B. Ed. and M. Ed. classes. Thus the college would get the benefit of the specialised knowledge of the visiting professor and the visiting professor would get a first hand knowledge of the working of a training college other than his own.

The Education Department is aware that there is an urgent need for rethinking and replanning of the administrative procedures for introducing radical changes in the outlook as well as techniques. The government is keen to gear the administrative machinery to the challenges of a democratic welfare state. A foreign expert of education visited India recently and he has remarked that "for the most part Indian administrators exert a conservative influence on the work of schools. India is not the only country in which administrators find orthodoxy and uniformity more comfortable companions than heterodoxy and diversity." He has further remarked that the educational administrators in India have no time to consider the value of experiments with new materials or methods. It is encouraging that the Union Ministry of Education is taking necessary steps to infuse new life in educational administration in the country. The Education Department in M.P. is fully conscious of existing defects in educational administration at all levels. All necessary steps are being taken to make educational administration dynamic and democratic.

The government budget of 1960-1 shows an enormous increase in expenditure on education and also reflects the magnitude of the task ahead. The details are given on Table 65.

TABLE 65

Budget Provisions for Education, M.P., 1960-61

Branch	(Rupees in lakhs)
1. University Education	1,36,59000
2. Secondary Education	3,34,89,975
3. Primary Education	6,06,06,000
4. Technical Education	8,84,0000
5. Other Branches	9,70,000
6. Teacher Education	82,75,000
7. Scholarships	13,62,000
8. Administration	43,89,500
9. Physical Education	22,15,200
10. Miscellaneous	14,10,325
Total	13,52,17,000

BACKGROUND

FORMATION OF THE STATE. — On the eve of independence, the Madras State, then known as the Madras Presidency, comprised the districts extending from Srikakulam in the North, Tirunelveli in the South, and Malabar and South Kanara in the West. Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Kannada were the then prevailing regional languages. In October 1953, the Andhra State came into being out of the Telugu districts of the State and the Kannada speaking portion of the Bellary district was merged with the Mysore State. The area of the State on the eve of partition was 121,790 square miles and the population about 580 lakhs. Consequent on the reorganisation of states on a linguistic basis, the Malayalam and Kannada speaking districts were merged with Kerala and Mysore states respectively and the Tamil speaking areas of the former Travancore-Cochin State merged with this State in November 1956. The area of the Madras State, thus reconstituted, is 50,132 square miles, and its population according to 1961 census is 3,23,94,375.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. — Along with Bombay and Calcutta, Madras was among the earliest settlements of the East India Company. The Company set about organising some kind of public instruction when from being merely a trading company, they passed on to play the role of rulers of the country. In 1826 the then governor, Sir Thomas Munro, constituted the Committee of Public Instruction with authority to establish schools both at the district level and at the *taluka* level throughout the presidency. A director of public instruction was appointed in 1854. A grant-in-aid code was issued the following year and private bodies were enabled to seek grants to run schools. The Madras University came into existence soon after. In 1871 with the constitution of local bodies, initiative was given to district boards and municipal councils to organise schools.

ADMINISTRATION AT HEADQUARTERS

INTRODUCTION. — On lines with other states, the Governor is the constitutional head of the State but the real executive authority vests in the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister. He is helped by a number of ministers and deputy ministers. One of these ministers is in charge of education.

EDUCATION MINISTER AND THE SECRETARY OF EDUCATION. — At present the Minister for Education in the State is also in charge of the portfolios of Law and Finance. He is assisted by a Secretary for Education in the secretariat, who is generally either an I.C.S. or I.A.S. officer.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT: ITS ORGANISATION AND FUNCTIONS. — The Director of Public Instruction is the head of the Department of Education. He is also the Commissioner for Government Examinations and the Director of Public Libraries. He is assisted at headquarters by three deputy directors and a deputy commissioner besides a few other officers. There are two divisional inspectors of schools in the grade of deputy directors with their headquarters in the *mufussil*.

The State is divided into 24 educational districts and a district educational officer is in charge of each of them. There are besides four inspectresses of girls' schools. Each district is divided into *talukas* and sub-*talukas* and there is a deputy inspector in charge of a *taluka* or sub-*taluka*. Inspecting officers are entrusted with the main task of the inspection of schools and the sanction and disbursement of grants. The professional institutions other than teacher-training are under the control of the respective departments.

ADVISORY BOARDS. — The following advisory bodies function in the State: (1) The State Board of Education; (2) The Board of Secondary Education, (3) The Central Library Committee and (4) The Text-book Committee. All these are nominated bodies.

The Minister of Education is the chairman of the State Board of Education and it advises the government on matters relating to education. The Director of Public Instruction is the chairman of the Board of Secondary Education. Besides the *ex-officio* officers, the board consists of representatives of the two universities, of teachers and of managements. They are nominated by government. The board is constituted to advise the D.P.I. on matters relating to secondary education particularly those concerning the S.S.L.C. Scheme.

The State Library Committee functions with the Minister for Education as its chairman. Moreover, local library committees have been constituted at the district level. Thus there is a systematic organisation of libraries in the State.

The main function of the Text-book Committee is to approve text-books for secondary and elementary schools. The committee consists of official and non-official members. The Director of Public Instruction is the chairman of the committee.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

There are two universities in the State — Madras and Annamalai. While the former is an affiliating and teaching university, the latter is a residential and teaching body. It

may also be noted that the Madras University is one of the oldest universities in the country and it celebrated its centenary in 1957. The governor and the minister of education of the State are *ex-officio* chancellor and pro-chancellor of the university respectively. During 1958-59, there were 59 arts and science colleges, 35 colleges for professional education and 21 colleges for special education in the entire State with a student enrolment of 54,292. The total direct expenditure on universities and colleges in that year was Rs. 3,18,10,792.¹ The grants to aided colleges (for general education and teacher training) are sanctioned by the Department of Education.

The courses in the collegiate classes consist of one year in the 'Pre-University' class, introduced from the year 1956-57 followed by a three-year degree course introduced a year later. The medium of instruction is English except in the case of one government college, where as an experimental measure, instruction is being imparted through the medium of Tamil for the 'Humanities' in the degree classes. College education for the arts degree course will be imparted with Tamil as the medium of instruction from 1963-64 onwards. This change-over will be compulsory in all government colleges; private colleges are free to continue to provide instruction to the B.A. degree course through the English medium but no grant will be paid by government in respect of the cost of such courses.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

School education in the State hitherto consisted of five years of 'primary', three years 'middle' and three years of 'high' school education. At the end of the eleventh year of study, viz., Form VI, pupils took the S.S.L.C. public examination. The last regular examination under the scheme was held in March 1961. The system of school education has been reorganised from the academic year 1958-59. The duration of the entire school system has been fixed at eleven years and it consists of two units: (1) an integrated elementary courses of seven years, and (2) a high secondary course of four years. The integrated elementary course of seven years is the same as the existing eight-year elementary course both in content and in the level of attainment. The attainment of the pupils at the end of the XI standard will be equal to the present pre-university class and the pupils will pass on straight to the degree class. Pupils will be presented for the X Standard public examination for the first time in March '62 and for the higher secondary public examination in March '63.

The higher secondary courses are of two types: (1) academic, and (2) diversified to cater to different aptitudes. The courses provided under the diversified scheme are:

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59.* pp. 63-65.

engineering, textile, technology, agriculture, secretarial, home science, music, and drawing and painting. Those who pass out from the XI Standard after doing the technological courses will be eligible to join the second year course in the polytechnics.

The State has accepted the three language formula of the Central Government and languages have been grouped under one head with three parts: (1) Part I — *Regional Language*; (2) Part II — *Hindi or any other Indian Language not included in Part I*; and (3) Part III — *English or any other modern European language*. Languages under Part II are taught only from Standard VIII. English is taught from Standard V. The medium of instruction is generally Tamil but provision has been made for the teaching of linguistic minorities in their own mother-tongue, if there are at least 45 pupils in the 'middle' or 'high' stage. The number of working days has been fixed at 200 to provide for 1,000 hours in a school year.

The number of secondary schools in the State is about 1,400 of which about 210 are girls' schools. About 225 schools are multipurpose schools. It is proposed to convert 200 high schools into higher secondary schools during the third plan period. Girls are admitted in boys' schools, wherever separate schools do not exist for them. Among other educational concessions awarded by the State, special mention should be made of the fact that no tuition fees are levied upto the III Form from pupils, the income of whose parents is Rs. 100 and less per mensem. Further, the children of elementary school teachers, police constables and head constables are granted full instead of half fee-concession in Forms IV to VI of secondary schools. Another concession granted since 1st January 1957 relates to the remission of full fee upto Form III and half fee from Form IV to VI in respect of children of village officers of certain places.

The administration of secondary schools is carried on by three agencies, viz., government, local boards and private bodies. The percentage distribution of the schools managed by these different agencies for (1956-57) was as follows: government (8.2), district boards (32.3), municipal boards (6.0), private bodies (52.3 aided) and (1.2 unaided). Thus a large number of institutions are run by private agencies, which earn grant-in-aid.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

There are two main types of schools in the State at the primary stage, viz., the elementary schools and the Basic schools. All these schools are treated as 'mixed' schools, as they are open to both boys and girls alike. Further, every school should have at least the first five standards. Every population centre (a village or a hamlet) with a population of 500 and over has been provided with a school; and in recent years quite a large number of centres with a population of 300—500 have been also provided with schools.

There are about 25,000 schools in the State for primary education of which about 4,000 schools are Basic schools. The enrolment in these schools in Forms I to VIII is 20.5 lakhs of boys and 11.5 lakhs of girls. The number of pupils under instruction in Forms I to V alone is about 17 lakhs of boys and 10 lakhs of girls. This works out to about 75 per cent for boys and 45 per cent for girls to the population in the age-group 6 to 12.

The schools work for 220 days in a year. Instruction is free in all schools under public management and in most of the schools under private management. A small number of schools under private management levy fees but no grants from government funds are payable to them from the school year 1959-60 in respect of Forms I to V.

Compulsory education is in force in certain select areas (26 municipalities and 1,234 other areas). The school age for which the scheme is applicable is 6-12 for both boys and girls. In some areas compulsion is for all children of the age-group living in the area, while in others it is limited to those who have of their own accord attended schools for 30 working days. In some areas, compulsion is confined to boys only.

The supply of free mid-day meals is one of the important features of the primary education scheme in the State. This was introduced in November 1957. It aims at securing the co-operation and active participation of the local public. The government aid is given at the rate of an amount equal to that by which the actual expenditure exceeds the public contribution of 4 nP. per meal per pupil subject to a ceiling of 6 nP.

A contributory provident-fund-cum-insurance-cum-pension scheme has been introduced with effect from April 1955. The scheme applies to all trained teachers in primary and secondary schools employed in local bodies and aided institutions, teachers in government schools being governed by their own pension scheme.

MISCELLANEOUS

TEACHER EDUCATION. — The number of training colleges in the State besides the Faculty of Teaching in the Annamalai University is 16, of which 4 are for women. One of the institutions is a Basic training college. The course in all these colleges is of one year's duration. The annual output of graduate trained teachers is about 900 men and 350 women. There are besides 2 colleges for physical education teachers.

The number of training schools is about 150 of which about 60 are for women. Most of the schools in the State have been converted into the Basic pattern. The training is of two years' duration and is at two levels: for those with the matriculation qualification and for those with the middle school certificates. The annual output of teachers from these institutions is about 3,000 men and 1,500 women at the matriculation level and about 2,500 men and 2,000 women at the middle school level.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — Besides the Engineering and the Technology faculties in the universities, there are 7 engineering colleges in the State with a total enrolment of over 5,000. They have an integrated five-year B. E. course after the pre-university stage. The annual output of engineers from these colleges is about 1,000. The number of polytechnics in the State is 17. The Government of India has also established an Indian Institute of Technology at Madras. It is being organised on the lines of the Massachusetts Institute in the U.S.A., and has been designed to provide facilities of the highest order for teaching and research in engineering and technology.

There are besides 5 medical (allopathic) colleges, one veterinary college, one agricultural college, one law college and a college of forestry in the State.

SOCIAL EDUCATION — Adult education effort by government is confined to the National Extension Service and Community Project areas. Admission to the course is restricted to the age-group 8 to 18 and it is a three-year course. The number of social (adult) education centres is about 1,500 and their enrolment is about 40,000 men and 6,000 women.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — There are four types of schools for pre-primary education in the State — the nursery, the Kindergarten, the Montessori and the pre-Basic. Besides the pre-Basic sections attached to about 30 Basic schools, there are about 30 other pre-primary schools and the total enrolment in all of them is about 3,000. Half of them are girls.

OTHER ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

FINANCE. — The total revenue of the State is about 6,000 lakhs of rupees, and the amount spent on education from state funds is about Rs. 1,400 lakhs working out to about 23 per cent of the total revenue. The total expenditure on education from all sources is about Rs. 2,500 lakhs. Sixty per cent of the expenditure is met from government funds, fifteen per cent from local body funds, fifteen per cent from fees and the rest from private bodies and other sources. On an average the annual cost of educating a pupil in 1958-59 was Rs 335.6 in an arts and science college, Rs 88.1 in a high/higher secondary school, Rs 35.1 in a middle school and Rs 27.2 in a primary school. The average annual cost *per capita* (of population) was Rs. 8.1.

EDUCATION AND THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT — Since 1958, the Department of Community Development Project has launched what are called school improvement conferences. Their main purpose is to enlist the support of the local public in implementing measures for the fulfilment of the various needs of the schools. Books and

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59.* p. 60.

slates and dresses for school children, time pieces, teaching aids, donations towards improvement of accommodation, equipment and gardens given by the villagers are distributed to the schools concerned.

THE ROLE OF PRIVATE BODIES. — It may be noted that private bodies play a very significant role in the education of the State. As many as 90 per cent of colleges for general education, 60 per cent of secondary schools and 30 per cent of primary schools are under private management. Managements of secondary schools receive 66·6 per cent of the approved net cost as grant-in-aid (this is increased to 75 per cent in the case of the diversified courses) and half the expenditure incurred on Dearness Allowance. In the case of primary schools, the entire expenditure on the staff as per salary scales prescribed by government is disbursed monthly to the managements. Managing bodies other than primary schools are to be registered. The contributions of private bodies from their funds in running the institutions under their managements work out to 15 per cent of the total expenditure in the case of colleges for general education, 10 per cent in the case of secondary schools and 4 per cent in the case of primary schools.

LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION — Local bodies (municipalities, district boards and village *panchayats*) run about 500 secondary schools and 15,000 primary schools. In other words, 35 per cent of the secondary schools and 60 per cent of the primary schools are under local bodies. Commencing from 1960, *panchayat* unions are being formed for the Community Development Block areas and schools under district boards are being progressively transferred to local *panchayats* and the transfer is expected to be complete by 1962.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

A planned development of education on a cost controlled basis has been set in motion with effect from the academic year 1958-59. The phased programme in the sphere of primary education calls for an increase in the annual out-turn of literates by completing the first five years of school education from 10 per 1,000 of the population to 20 per 1,000 and also to reduce the cost of turning out one such literate from the present level of about Rs. 200 to Rs. 150. This reduction in the unit cost is sought to be achieved firstly by eliminating wastage through compulsory education and secondly by increasing the pupil-teacher ratio.

With the two-fold object of relieving unemployment among the educated youth and to increase enrolment in schools, the government formulated the Unemployment Relief Scheme from the year 1954-55 under which a large number of schools and additional classes were opened in rural areas under district board management.

The target proposed for additional enrolment of pupils of the age-group 6 to 14 during the Second Five-Year Plan is 5.2 lakhs. This is spread over all the five years so as to secure a phased programme. This involves the additional enrolment of 1.04 lakhs every year and the opening of nearly 1,735 classes.

In the field of secondary education, improvement in the enrolment of the age-group 14 to 17 has been introduced as a new scheme during the second plan period. The target is to secure an additional enrolment of 18,000 progressively during the first three years.

INTRODUCTION

The Maharashtra State came into existence on 1st May 1960 as a result of the bifurcation of the bigger bilingual Bombay State. It consists of 26 districts broadly divided into three regions, viz, 13 districts which formed a part of the old Bombay State, 8 districts known as Vidarbha which formed a part of the old M.P. State, and 5 districts known as the Marathawada which formed a part of the old Hyderabad State. These three units had come together as the Marathi speaking area of the bigger bilingual state on 1-11-1956. Thus for a period of three years and six months, i.e., till 1-5-1960 they formed a part of the bigger Bombay State along with Gujarati speaking units of Gujarat, Saurashtra and Kutch. The new State with a population of 3,95,04,294 according to 1961 census, has an area of 1,18,530 square miles.

This knowledge of the composition of the Maharashtra State will help to understand the variety in the administrative set-up of the three component units. Prior to November 1, '56, these three units were governed by the administrative pattern established by the old states of which they formed parts. These patterns differed in several aspects. After the formation of the bigger bilingual Bombay State, the question of integrating the administrative patterns for primary and secondary education was taken up by the Bombay Government. Two committees, one for primary education and the other for secondary education, were set up for suggesting measures for integration. The report of the Secondary Education Integration Committee was published before the second reorganisation and action was taken on its recommendations regarding the revision of pay scales of secondary teachers. The recommendations of the Primary Education Integration Committee were published in part before the second reorganisation. The report of the committee, concerning these recommendations, was published by the Maharashtra Government in 1961 after the reorganisation of the State. Subsequent to this, the State decided to remodel the administrative pattern on the lines recommended by the Balwantrao Mehta Committee and appointed a committee to make specific recommendations for the proposed pattern. This committee's report has also been published and a bill for democratic decentralisation of administration on the basis of the recommendations of the

committee appointed by the State has been introduced in the state legislature in August, 1961. With the passing of this bill, it is expected that a uniform pattern of administration will be introduced in the whole State. In the course of this chapter, we shall describe the different patterns of administration as they obtain at present and also refer to the changes proposed in the democratic decentralisation set-up to come.

ADMINISTRATION AT THE STATE LEVEL

At the state level, the administrative pattern for education in Maharashtra does not differ much from that in other Indian states. The portfolio for education is in charge of a minister, who is a member of the State Cabinet. He is assisted by a deputy minister. Under him functions the Education Department in the State Secretariat. The Secretary is a member of the Administrative or Civil Service. The budget of Education Department is voted annually by the State Legislature. During 1960-61, the total budget of the Maharashtra State was 101.13 crores of rupees and the amount budgeted for Education was 22.8 crores of rupees. Thus approximately 22.51 per cent of the total budget has been ear-marked for education. The budgets of the different branches of education and their percent to the total education budget are given below

TABLE 66
Budgets of Different Branches of Education, Maharashtra, 1960-61

Sr. No.	Particulars	Amount in lakhs of rupees	Percent to total
1.	Higher Education	1,34.53	5.89
2.	Secondary Education	5,38.29	23.60
3.	Primary Education	13,17.99	57.59
4.	Other Branches	2,90.02	12.72
		22,80.83	100.00

The Department of Education has under its control the Director of Education in charge of non-technical education and the Director of Technical Education in charge of technical education. It lays down policies, sanctions grants for new schemes of development included in the five-year plans and controls appointments in Class I and Class II educational services. The Director of Education submits proposals to Government for initiating new policies, new schemes or for paying grants to special bodies and higher institutions. He prepares the annual budget of the Department. The Secretariat Department scrutinises the Director's proposals before sanctioning them. This double scrutiny, at the Directorate and governmental level, is intended to eliminate defects in the schemes

and ensure their efficient implementation. But often it results in considerable delay. Educational schemes, such as opening new courses, introduction of compulsory education, appointment of new staff, have to take effect from the beginning of the academic year. This does not always happen and some times new schemes are introduced late in the year.

The Director of Education has his headquarters at Poona. The State is divided into four divisions, two for the old Bombay districts known as Poona and Bombay divisions, one for Vidarbha and one for the Marathawada known as the Aurangabad division. The number of districts in a division varies from five to eight. The units coming from old M.P. and Hyderabad states are maintained in tact as divisions for administrative convenience. A Deputy Director is in charge of each division. Powers of the Director for reorganisation and sanctioning grant-in-aid are now delegated to the deputy directors. At the headquarters, the Director is assisted by a joint director and three deputy directors.

ADMINISTRATION AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL

In the old Bombay districts, the educational inspector is the head of the educational administration of the district. He supervises primary, secondary and special schools and also the work of the inspecting staff under him. He inspects secondary schools and sanctions grants. He can give recognition to new schools. He is a member of the District Development Board and thus participates in all discussions concerning educational developments in the district. He is a member of the Staff Selection Committee and the Appellate Tribunal of the school boards in the district. Thus he comes in contact with primary education in the district. He is held responsible for the implementation of educational development schemes in his district. He is an officer of Class I of the State Educational Service. Posts of educational inspectors have also been created in the Marathawada area, and thus 18 out of 25 districts in the State have now educational inspectors. In Vidarbha area, there are four posts of divisional superintendents of education for eight districts. These D.S.E.s exercise powers of E.I.s over the districts in their charge. Eventually, it is expected that there will be one educational inspector for each district.

Under the educational inspector, there is the deputy educational inspector for each district. In Vidarbha, this officer is known as the district inspector of schools. The D.E.I. is mainly in charge of primary education including the inspection of primary schools. Some powers and functions are assigned to him under the Primary Education Act. He is also in charge of social education work in the district. In addition to this work, he has to inspect middle schools and in bigger district, even some high schools. He has under him a team of assistant deputy educational inspectors to assist him in inspection, social education, etc. The A.D.E.I.s are in charge of beats, each having 50 to 70 schools. Some

A.D.E.I.'s beats, — as in the case of the A.D.E.I. for P.E., — extend for the whole district. The A.D.E.I.s are generally trained graduates, though in old Bombay districts 35 per cent of the posts are reserved for trained primary teachers. They have to inspect institutions under their control once a year and visit them at least once in addition. They are touring officers and have to be on tour at least for 250 days in a year. They come to headquarters once a month, when they hold a common room meeting for the discussion of problems concerning primary education, Basic education, social education, etc. in their beats. The social education organisers in C.D. blocks also attend these meetings.

In the Old Bombay Districts (except Greater Bombay), there is another Class II officer known as the administrative officer, one for each district school board. There are also Class III administrative officers for a school board run by an authorised municipality. We shall refer to school boards in greater detail in the section on primary education. The A.O. is in charge of the primary schools in his area. Subject to certain conditions, he can appoint and transfer teachers. He enquires into complaints against the school board staff and takes disciplinary action. He arranges for the disbursement of salaries in school boards and grant-in-aid to private schools. He attends to the programme of construction and repairs of school buildings. He works as the secretary of the school board. He is also responsible for the implementation of development schemes concerning primary education, such as the enforcement of compulsory education, introduction of Basic education, construction of school buildings, etc. He works under the guidance and supervision of the district educational inspector and the chairman of the school board. The A.O. is assisted by Assistant A.O.s and supervisors. Such posts have not been created in the Marathawada and Vidarbha areas.

With the introduction of the new set-up of democratic decentralisation in the near future, there is likely to be considerable change in the district administration. A district will have a district council, consisting of 40 to 60 elected members. This district council will be in the overall charge of development departments in the district. These departments include education. This council will elect committees for different subjects. Among the committees, there will be one committee for education. The district council will have a president who will be a salaried officer and the education committee also will have a salaried chairman. The education committee will be in charge of primary, secondary and social education in the district. The educational inspector will be the secretary of the education committee of the district council and the present administrative officer of the district school board and the deputy educational inspector will assist him in primary education. It is also expected that in addition to these two Class II officers,

the district will have an additional Class II officer for the supervision of social education working under the district educational inspector.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

We shall now study the administration of the different branches of education in the State. The branches to be considered will be primary, secondary, teacher-training, higher, and special. These branches will be studied with reference to various items of administration, viz., control, management and finance. Control includes laying out policies of education, framing syllabi and curricula, holding of public examinations, recognition of institutions, etc. Management includes the detailed arrangements for running educational institutions within the prescribed framework. Finance is concerned with the sources of income and items of expenditure, required for running institutions by managements. Let us take primary education first.

The control of primary education in the Maharashtra vests in the State, which lays down the curricula for primary schools and also specifies the text-books to be used in primary schools. In old Bombay districts, Standards I-VII in primary schools form the primary stage. In Vidarbha and Marathawada, primary education ends with Standard IV. The higher classes upto Standard VII form the middle stage. The Integration Committees have recommended that primary education should be of seven years' duration throughout the State. At the same time, the Committees have suggested that Standards V, VI and VII should be treated as secondary when these are run by a secondary school along with higher classes. The syllabi for primary schools in the three units differ from one another, though there is much in common amongst them. One of the problems of integration facing the Maharashtra State is the adoption of a common syllabus for primary and secondary schools in the State. In the old Bombay districts, Government holds a primary school certificate examination at the end of the seven years' course. This examination is accepted as a qualifying examination for lower grade services. In the Vidarbha area, the primary school certificate examination is held at the end of Standard IV. In the Marathawada area, a common annual examination of Standard VII is held on a district basis. The question of having a common primary school certificate examination for the whole State as a terminal point for the primary course is linked up with the integration of primary school syllabuses in the State.

In respect of management, primary education in the old Bombay districts and Vidarbha is managed by local bodies. In the Marathawada region, primary education is directly managed by government. The pattern of management in Bombay districts and Vidarbha is, however, different. In old Bombay districts, (except Greater Bombay), primary edu-

cation is managed by school boards. There are two types of school boards — one for districts, known as the district school boards and the other for big municipalities which are authorised to manage primary schools, known as the municipal school boards. The number of district school boards in the State is 12 and of the municipal school boards (including Bombay and Poona Municipal Corporations) is 12. The members of the district school boards (excepting government nominees) are elected by district local boards and the members of the municipal school boards, by the authorised municipalities. The district school boards manage the schools of the non-authorised municipalities. The number of members in a school board varies from 12 to 16 including two nominated members, one an official and the other, a non-official educationist. The main function of school boards is to take steps for the rapid expansion of education in their areas. They frame budgets and administer the primary education fund. Appointments and transfers of teachers are made by the A.O. according to the lists approved by the staff selection committees of the school boards. These committees consist of the E.I. of the district, the chairman of the school board and the A.O. of the school board. Government have issued detailed instructions for the guidance of these committees. Powers of promotion and taking disciplinary action are vested in the A. O. An appellate tribunal consisting of the district E.I. and the S.B. chairman hear appeals against disciplinary action taken by the A.O. The A.O. is a government officer, controlled by the E.I. and the Director of Education. The Director sanctions the budget of the school board. It will thus be seen that the main administrative powers of appointments and transfers are shared between government officers and the chairman of the school board. This is a kind of compromise as we shall see later on. In Vidarbha the management of primary schools is vested in the hands of the *janapad sabhas* and the municipal committees. There is one *janapad sabha* for each *taluka*. The number of *janapad sabhas* and municipal school committees is 100. These local bodies have full powers of administration, including appointments and transfers of teachers. Very little control is exercised by government officers. We thus see that in the three units (old Bombay, Vidarbha and Marathawada), there are three distinct patterns of management. Whereas in the Marathawada, the government is the sole managing agency, in Vidarbha, the local body has sole powers of management. In old Bombay there is a compromise between government and the local body in respect of administrative powers. As we have already said, this set-up is to be soon replaced by district councils and the education committees of these councils. As such the district school boards in old Bombay areas and the *janapad sabhas* in Vidarbha areas will be scrapped. The municipal school boards in old Bombay and the municipal school committees in Vidarbha will continue to function as before. The

A.O. of the D.S.B.s will become one more D.E.I. and the educational inspector of the district will be the secretary of the education committee of the district council.

The three different types of managements now prevailing in Maharashtra raise a fundamental policy question as to which of these is the best arrangement — whether the management should rest entirely with the state, with the local body, or between the two together. Public opinion is not unanimous on this point. Primary teachers and their conferences have demanded that the entire management of primary schools should rest with government. In Marathawada where the management is with government, there is a demand for its transfer to local bodies. On the other hand, the local bodies have protested against government's retaining a share in the administration and have demanded complete administrative control. They do not want to be mere advisory bodies without executive powers. This controversy will soon be resolved in the Maharashtra State by the transfer of control of primary education completely to local bodies, viz., the district council and its education committee. The present government staff functioning in districts in the Education Department will also be transferred to the district councils. However we may, in passing, refer to the administrative changes that occurred in the Bombay State since 1923 when the local bodies for primary education were created, since this account will serve as a background for understanding the proposed change in the new set-up.

Prior to 1923, the management of primary schools in the Bombay State was in the hands of government. The P.E. Act of 1923 created school boards, and government handed over the administration of primary schools to these boards which were empowered to appoint staff, including the A.O., teachers, inspecting staff, etc. The local bodies were expected to expand primary education by tapping local resources. The local bodies, however, engaged themselves only in administration and no expansion worth the name was achieved. There were serious complaints of inefficiency in administration, and the government amended the P.E. Act. in 1938. Under the amended Act, government took over inspection of schools, appointed a state officer as the A.O., who was empowered to appoint, promote and transfer teachers, etc. Thus the administrative functions held by the school board came to be transferred to the A.O., a government officer. This resulted in protests by school boards and caused friction between the A.O. and the school boards. The point of dispute was the power of appointment and transfer of teachers. Hence the P.E. Act of 1947 introduced a change. Powers of appointments and transfers are now exercised by the staff selection committee, which consists of the E.I. of the district, the A.O. and the chairman of the school board. As regards disciplinary action against

the staff, the Act provided for the formation of the appellate tribunal consisting of the E.I. and the school board chairman.

The present administration of primary education has given rise to some difficulties. The first among these is the utter unweildiness of the district as a unit of administration. In 1923 when the number of schools in a district was small, a district formed a suitable administrative unit. But since then the number of schools has rapidly increased due to the introduction of compulsory education in 1947. The number of schools in the Maharashtra State in 1956-57 was 29,434 with an enrolment of 33,29,000 pupils. In 1957-58, the number of schools increased by 700 and pupils by one and a half lakhs. In 1958-59, the number of schools increased by 1,700 and pupils by three lakhs. In 1959-60, the number of schools increased by 1,200 and enrolment by 75,000. In 1959-60, there were in the State, 33,074 primary schools with an enrolment of 38,13,432 pupils. The average number of schools for a district was 1,300. As such the district has become too big a unit. It has become practically impossible for the A.O. to maintain personal contact with teachers and watch their work. A smaller unit has become necessary to maintain efficiency. The Primary Education Integration Committee has recommended the creation of *taluka* units in charge of assistant A.O.s and group units in charge of head master-cum-supervisors. The new set-up of democratic decentralisation proposes to give the control and supervision of primary schools to block committees, so far as their blocks are concerned.

Another difficulty is that the district unit has become too large to stimulate local effort and harness local resources for the improvement of village schools. The village school has to depend upon the D.S.B. even for small matters. Local initiative can be developed by forming local school committees with executive powers. Such committees can tap local resources for the school. The Primary Education Integration Committee has recommended the creation of such village school committees equipped with funds and powers. The village Panchayat Act gives powers to *panchayats* to take a greater interest in school affairs.

Difficulties have also been created in internal administration due to friction between the A.O. and the school board. The present compromise pattern gives scope for distrust, suspicion and frequent interference in administrative matters. The A.O. is not free to carry on administration effectively. The situation is worsened, when elections to school boards are fought on political grounds. Seats are contested by one or the other political party and educational advance gets a set-back through political rivalry. In the proposed new set-up, there will be little scope for friction as all powers of administration will be vested in district councils and their education committees.

We now study the question of finance for primary education. The expenditure on primary education is met mainly from two sources, the income of the local bodies and government grants. In old Bombay districts, the D.S.B.s get a share of the local fund cess from the D.L.B.s. This is 15 pies in a total of 36 pies collected per rupee of the land revenue. This amount together with government grants goes to build up the P. E. Fund. The municipalities, whose schools are managed by the D.S.B., have to pay contribution to the D.S.B. at specified rates. The third source of income was fee receipts from pupils. This has now been abolished for all primary school classes. Some local donations, income from craft-work in Basic schools go under the miscellaneous income of school boards. The authorised municipalities have to bear 50 per cent of the expenditure on primary education, the other 50 per cent being met from government grants. In Vidarbha, government used to give 75 per cent of the expenditure as grants to the *janapad sabhas* who had to bear the remaining 25 per cent. But for rural areas in Bombay, government grants work out roughly at 96 per cent of the total expenditure and in the Marathawada the entire expenditure on primary education is borne by the State. Hence the Maharashtra Government has decided to aid the *janapad sabhas* at 95 per cent of their expenditure. The municipal school committees in Vidarbha get 50 per cent grants.

It will thus be seen from these details that the major share of expenditure on primary education is borne by government. This is and should be the policy in view of the State's liability to introduce free and compulsory education as per directive given by the Indian Constitution. Leaving the financial side to local bodies would not secure the desired result. The expenditure of school boards is rigidly controlled by government through a system of local fund audit. Detailed rules for admissibility of expenditure for grant-in-aid have been framed and embodied in a code. The school boards have complained that rigorous control on expenditure hampers progress and expansion as the bodies have no freedom to spend on items, which they consider necessary. The Primary Education Integration Committee has recommended a simplified procedure of grant-in-aid. It has also recommended the liberalisation of the criteria for determining authorised municipalities, so that a larger number of municipalities, now non-authorised, will become authorised and thus will share expenditure on primary education at a much higher rate than they do at present.

Primary education in the State has to participate in important developmental schemes in the five-year plans. The scheme of free and compulsory education is being implemented in the old Bombay districts. The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947 provides for free and compulsory education. During the First Five-Year Plan, compulsory education was introduced in villages with a population of 1,000 and above, for children

in the age range of 7-11. During the second plan period, it has been extended to villages below a population of 1,000. Free and compulsory education for the age-range of 7-11 in the other two units of the State—Vidarbha and the Marathawada—is expected to be introduced under the Third Five-Year Plan. The State intends to bring children of the age-range of 6-7 also within the orbit of compulsory education during the third plan period. Another scheme included in the five-year plans is the introduction of Basic education. In the First Five-Year Plan, Basic education was introduced in about 2,000 schools of the old Bombay State (including Gujarat) in two stages, first by introducing craft and then by introducing community living and correlated teaching. In Vidarbha, one full grade in each *taluka* was taken by government from the *janapad sabhas* for conversion into a Basic school. During the Second Five-Year Plan, much headway in expanding Basic education could not be done owing to paucity of funds. But steps were taken to consolidate the work already done and to orient primary schools towards Basic education. As such, a common syllabus was introduced for Basic and non-Basic schools, suitable literature on Basic education for the guidance of teachers was produced, community living was introduced in all schools and a large number of short-term orientation courses for primary teachers were held all over the State for achieving an end. The teacher training programme was also strengthened. This subject will be referred to in a separate section. A third item under the five-year plans is the programme of construction of school buildings. For this, the government devised a special scheme of giving loans to school boards out of teachers' provident fund accumulations. Funds available in C.D. blocks were also pooled with the board funds for accelerating the buildings programme. Provision was also made for the construction of craft sheds for good Basic schools and quarters for women teachers.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education will be studied in its three aspects, viz., control, management and finance. The control of secondary education in the old Bombay areas and the Marathawada rests with government, which lays down the curricula and rules for recognition of institutions. For the old Bombay districts there is a statutory S.S.C. Examination Board, which conducts the S.S.C. Examination. This board consists of representatives of teachers, universities and the Education Department. For the Marathawada area, there is no separate S.S.C. Examination Board. The chairman of the S.S.C. Examination Board at Poona holds the S.S.C. Examination for the Marathawada area also. As for Vidarbha, the control rests partly with the government and partly with the Secondary Education Board, Nagpur, which is a statutory body. The Education Department recognises

secondary schools and aids them. The Vidarbha Board of Secondary Education lays down the syllabi for secondary and higher secondary schools and recognises schools for sending up candidates for the S.S.C. and the Higher S.S.C. Examinations conducted by the Board. Thus there exists a dual machinery, controlling secondary education. The entire State has an advisory board for secondary education.

The pattern of curricula in the three units also differs. In the old Bombay areas, there is a seven years' secondary course (totalling to 11 years with the primary) leading to the S.S.C. Examination. In Vidarbha, there is a ten years' course leading to the S.S.C. and an eleven years' course leading to the Higher S.S.C. Students after the S.S.C. are admitted in the Pre-University course, which is a preparatory year for the three years' degree course. Students passing the Higher S.S.C. are directly admitted in the three years' degree course. In the Marathawada, there is a twelve years' course (five primary plus seven secondary) leading to the higher secondary school certificate examination. The higher secondary courses in the Marathawada and Vidarbha follow the Central Government's draft syllabi for higher secondary schools issued by the All-India Council for Secondary Education. In old Bombay districts, the syllabus has been framed by the S.S.C. Examination Board providing a wide choice of subjects grouped on a different plan. The question of introducing the higher secondary course in old Bombay districts is under the consideration of the Department. Committees were appointed by the government to draft such a syllabus, which will provide a terminal point at the S.S.C. Examination after ten years and also at the Higher S.S.C. after eleven years.

In respect of management, there are more varieties at the secondary stage than at the primary stage. At the primary stage, the management rests with local bodies and government, private effort being very small. But at the secondary stage, private effort plays a major role. The number of state managed schools in old Bombay districts and Vidarbha is small. There are a few schools run by local bodies also. But the bulk are private schools. In the Marathawada, private effort has not yet developed. The bulk of secondary schools is managed by government. But here also efforts are being made to attract private bodies to open schools. They are promised a liberal grant-in-aid, which starts with 90 per cent in the first year and gradually slides down to 80, 70, 60 and 50 per cents in the succeeding years. Government have also accepted the policy of transferring government managed schools to well established private bodies. There has been a steady rise in secondary education under the Second Five-year Plan, nearly 150 schools being added every year. The number of secondary schools in 1956-57 was 1,496 with an enrolment of 5.40 lakhs of pupils. In 1959-60, the number of institutions reached 2,009 with an

enrolment of 7.33 lakhs of pupils. The increase is mainly due to the rapid rise of private effort, which includes proprietary schools, trust schools and society managed schools. Government have adopted a policy of refusing aid to proprietary schools unless they transform themselves into trust or society schools.

Private management of secondary education raises a host of problems concerning the relation between different managements and school staffs—such as salary scales, service conditions, termination of services, retirement benefits, etc. These have been laid down in the State's grant-in-aid code, which is enforced by the E I of the district and the D E. Many of the conditions in the grant-in-aid code have been evolved as a result of the Ghate-Parulekar Scheme, which came into effect in 1948. This Scheme was the result of the Secondary Schools Committee's Report. The conditions have been revised and the process of revision continues. Uniform time-scales of pay were first recommended by the G P Committee in 1948. These were common for government and non-government secondary schools. They have been revised in 1959 as a result of the Secondary Education Integration Committee's recommendations. The present scale of pay for trained graduates in non-government secondary schools is Rs 120-300.

Like primary education, a controversy rages in secondary education also whether secondary schools should be managed by government or the present policy of encouraging private managements should continue. The teaching staff favours government management owing to a greater security of tenure, regular payments of salaries, fair chances of promotion, etc. In some private managements, the relations between the staff and managements is often strained. Discontent among staff affects teaching. The grant-in-aid code provides for appeals to the Director of Education. In state institutions, however, there is generally a lack of enthusiasm and initiative for progress. Voluntary effort can tap local resources and work with a spirit of service can achieve improvement in educational standards. It should, therefore, be a sound policy to leave the management of secondary education to voluntary efforts with safeguards for regular payments, security of tenure and satisfactory service conditions.

The third point to be considered is that of finance in secondary education. The main sources of income for secondary schools are three, viz., tuition fees, government grants and managements' contributions through donations. The government grant has been recently increased from 30 per cent to 45 per cent in the case of urban schools and from 33 per cent to 50 per cent in the case of rural schools. In addition to these, government earmarked a fairly large sum for payment of liberalised grants on capital expenditure and equipment for non-government schools. Tuition fees are standardised for different areas.

They vary from rupees three to six for 'C' areas, rupees four to eight for 'B' areas and rupees five to nine for 'A' areas. Schools have to seek the Department's permission to raise fees above the standard rates. In 1960-61, managements wanted to raise their fee-rates so as to meet the additional cost for implementing the revised pay scales. But permission was not granted. Government provide free education to children whose parents' or guardians' income is less than Rs 1,200 a year. This concession has given a strong impetus to starting schools in rural areas. Schools, charging fees more than 1½ times the standard rates, do not earn profits. The third source of income, i.e., management's contributions, is not a sure one and smaller schools find it difficult to balance their budgets. Bigger schools with large enrolments can adjust their budgets. Efficiency of many secondary schools has been hampered due to financial difficulties. Under the Second Five-year Plan, a new source of income has come to play an important part in expansion programmes. This is the Central Government's aid at 60 per cent of the approved expenditure on multi-purpose and post-basic courses. In such cases the remaining 40 per cent is shared by the management and the state government.

Qualitative improvement of secondary education is sought through the introduction of higher secondary and multi-purpose courses. During the Second Five-Year Plan till 1960, the State introduced 168 courses. They are distributed as follows: Technical, 6, Agriculture, 12, Commerce, 24, Home Science, 23, Fine Arts, 19, Sciences, 25, and Humanities, 50. The number of agricultural courses is likely to be substantially increased due to the importance given to the subject in our economy.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The training of teachers can be studied at three levels, viz., primary, matriculate secondary and graduate secondary. The first level of training is provided by primary training colleges, the second by the S.T.C. and B.T.C. courses, and the third by the S.T. Colleges and the G.B.T.C. (graduates' Basic training colleges). We shall study each of these levels of training separately.

Primary training colleges are controlled by the State Government, which has framed a two years' course for teachers under training. The duration of the course is the same for both types of primary teachers, viz., S.S.C. passed and P.S.C. passed. The syllabi are common in some respects, but differ in academic subjects. Admissions to these colleges are rigorously controlled by government, which has prescribed a minimum percentage of marks for admission and has reserved 80 per cent of seats in private colleges for school board teachers in the old Bombay districts. Matriculates with two years' training are given the senior grade of Rs 56-100, while P.S.C.s with two years' training are given

the junior grade of Rs. 50-90. Recently a concession has been given to matriculates completing the junior course examination in one year and to qualify themselves for the senior certificate later on. These certificate examinations are held by government.

Primary training colleges are managed by Government as well as by private bodies. The number of primary training colleges in the State at the end of 1959-60 was 113 with an enrolment of 13,847 student teachers. Of these 28 colleges were meant for women with an enrolment of 4,961 trainees. Nearly 40 per cent of the colleges were managed by government and the rest by private bodies. In respect of private training colleges, the main sources of income were government grants and tuition fees. Government had appointed in 1955 a committee to suggest ways and measures for improving private training institutions. On the recommendations of this committee, the maintenance grant was raised from 50 per cent to 66 per cent and tuition fees from Rs. 60 to Rs. 72 per student per year. Under the first and second five-year plans, the government added additional classes to government training colleges for increasing the output. With the help of financial provision made by the Central Government, the Maharashtra Government opened 13 new training colleges in 1959-60 and 12 new training colleges in 1960-61 in rural areas. These colleges are intended to train annually about 2,500 teachers to man the new schools to be opened under the scheme of universal, free and compulsory education in the Third Five-Year Plan. The percentage of untrained teachers in old Bombay districts is 42, while in Vidarbha it is 46.9, and in the Marathawada it is 74.7. As per provision for training now available including the special provision made by the Central Government, it is expected that half the untrained element at present will be trained during the third five-year plan period, and the remaining in the fourth plan period.

For the non-graduate untrained secondary teachers, there are two parallel training courses—one controlled by the Education Department and known as S.T.C., and the other controlled by the universities and known as T.D. (Poona), Dip. T. (Nagpur), or Dip. Edn. (Bombay). The S.T.C. is an in-service course and is lower in standard than the T.D. course. Both these courses are lower in standard than the two years' Senior Primary Training Course, though the Senior P.T.C. gets a lower scale of pay than the S.T.C. or T.D. This disparity of courses and scales of pay have given rise to much discontent among primary teachers and has tended to lower training standards of non-graduate teachers, who prefer the cheapest course. Separate provision is made for training teachers in Hindi and physical education. In 1959-60, there were 60 S.T.C. institutions with an enrolment of 2,485 teachers as against 3 T.D. institutions with an enrolment of 332 students. There were also 12 physical training institutions with an enrolment of 614 students and 92 Hindi Shikshak Sanad classes with an enrolment of 712 students. All these institutions,

except the two Dip. T. colleges in Vidarbha, are run by private bodies. The Dip. T. classes are run by government.

There are also two parallel training courses for graduates, one leading to B.T. or B.Ed. degree of the universities and the other to the Diploma in Post-graduate Basic Education of the state government. The number of B.T. colleges in the State is 11 with an enrolment of 1,099 student teachers. There are three Basic training colleges for graduates, of which one is affiliated to the Nagpur University. The question of affiliating the other two colleges to the Poona University was considered for a long time and the affiliation of these two also will take place from June, 1962. One post-graduate Basic training college and four secondary training colleges are run by government, and the remaining institutions are managed either by universities or private bodies. The total number of teachers in secondary schools in the Maharashtra State at the end of 1959-60 was 30,661 of whom 19,189 teachers were trained. The percentage of trained teachers works out at 62. The introduction of improved pay scales for secondary teachers will step up the programme of untrained teachers. For special training in Hindi and physical education, the government have instituted the Senior Hindi Shikshak Sanad course and the Diploma in Physical Education course. Short term courses for training multi-purpose school teachers in agriculture and commerce have also been organised at government S.T. colleges.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education in Maharashtra is controlled by five statutory universities—Bombay, S.N.D.T., Poona, Nagpur and Marathawada. Of these the Bombay University is the oldest one and has celebrated its centenary, while the Marathawada University has been started after the state's reorganisation. The S.N.D.T. University serves both Maharashtra and Gujarat and is intended only for women. During 1958-59, the total number of colleges affiliated to the universities in was: Bombay (44), Nagpur (29), Poona (38), S.N.D.T. (3) and Marathawada (9).

Universities have jurisdictions over their respective regions. Their constitution and functions are similar. They are all affiliating and teaching universities. The Poona University has two types of institutions (1) constituent, those located in Poona city area and (2) affiliated, those located outside Poona. The universities provide for all the usual higher education faculties.

Besides the five universities, there are two big rural education centres, which have come into existence with the aid of central and state governments. These are the Sri Mouni Vidyapeetha, Gargoti and the Sri Shivaji Loka Vidyapeetha, Amaraoti. These

vidyapeethas are designed to cater to a system of education different from the traditional courses of universities. They have developed a number of institutions, which particularly aim at rural education and development. Among these institutions may be mentioned the rural higher institutes providing for a four years' diploma in rural services and a three years' diploma in civil and rural engineering. These are residential units and are designed to develop into rural universities in the near future. In addition to these, the question of starting a new university at Kolhapur is also under the consideration of government and a committee has been appointed to report on the pattern and functions of this new university.

Institutions imparting higher education cover a large variety, including university departments and arts, science, commerce and other professional colleges. At the end of 1959-60, Maharashtra had 25 university departments, 16 research institutions, 64 arts and science colleges, 4 agriculture colleges, 10 commerce colleges, 5 engineering colleges, 8 law colleges and 16 medical colleges (including allopathic, *ayurvedic*, pharmacy and veterinary). Majority of these colleges are run by private agencies, and are mainly financed by tuition fees and donations. Government grants in old Bombay areas range from 10 to 20 per cent, depending upon the financial resources of institutions. In Vidarbha area, this rate of grant-in-aid to higher institutions is higher, i.e., one-third of their approved expenditure. The question of introducing a uniform rate of grant-in-aid for higher educational institutions all over the State is under the consideration of government. Another source of income for university recognised institutions is the special grant given by the UGC. These grants are meant for new schemes, research projects and enhancement of scales of pay of staff of colleges and universities. The sources of income of universities are mainly examination and other fees recovered from students and government grants. Following grants (amount in lakhs of rupees) were given to universities during 1959-60: Bombay, 8.36; Poona, 7.88; Nagpur, 4.30; S.N.D.T., 1.54.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS

Now we shall take up other institutions, which have not been covered in the categories mentioned above. Among these will come technical schools, language schools and adult education schools. Technical education is controlled by the Director of Technical Education. There are three types of courses, viz., (1) trade courses for primary school passed students, (2) technical courses for secondary school level students, and (3) polytechnics for S.S.C. passed students. The number of trade courses of the first and the second kind in 1959-60 was 155 with an enrolment of 6,440 students, and the number of polytechnics was 32 with an enrolment of 7,112 students. Government is keen on expand-

ing technical education facilities at all levels, so as to supply the technical personnel required for five-year plans. Among language schools are included schools for teaching Sanskrit and Arabic. These are private classes. The number of these schools in 1959-60 was 31 with an enrolment of 1,482 students. Pre-primary schools are intended for children of the age-range of 2½ to 6. These are mostly run by private bodies, but in Vidarbha some of these are run by local bodies. The number of these schools in 1959-60 was 436 with a total enrolment of 28,500 pupils. There is a special training course for pre-primary teachers of the duration of one year for matriculates and two years for primary school certificate holders. The State has 12 pre-primary training institutions with an enrolment of 692 pupil teachers. Of these only one is managed by government.

Adult education schools form a part of the social education drive in the State. The old Bombay districts had a regional social education committee with its headquarters at Poona. This has now been replaced by a small committee for the entire State. The city areas of Bombay, Sholapur and Jalgaon have their own city social education committees. These are all non-official bodies. The expenditure of the State Committee is borne by government in full, while the expenditure of city committees is shared on a grant-in-aid basis. The control and supervision of adult education classes rests with the A.D.E.I.s and the social education organisers in C.D. blocks. These classes are conducted by non-officials or primary school teachers, who are paid an honorarium on the basis of work done in literacy and post-literacy. In the old Bombay district, this literacy course has been divided into two stages, viz., First Test course and the Second Test course. The post-literacy work is expected to be organised through a net-work of village libraries and a system of circulating libraries in operation in Vidarbha area. The village libraries can be run by local bodies like the *panchayats*. They earn a grant of 50 per cent of their expenditure, limited to Rs 75/- per library. The total number of social education classes and village libraries in the State in 1959-60 was 12,454, with an enrolment of 2.48 lakh adults and an expenditure of 8.68 lakhs of rupees. Since 1960, government introduced a new pattern of school-cum-community centres to be started in selected villages. The conductors of such centres would get a monthly remuneration of Rs. 10/- plus incidental charges for contingency of Rs 5/- These centres would develop not only literacy classes and village libraries, but also serve as recreation and cultural centres of the community with a variety of cultural programmes to be organised by the school children and villagers. In addition to these normal activities, special literacy campaigns are organised in vacations and special parts of the year. Two such campaigns for mass literacy drives were organised in the summer vacations of 1958 and 1959, when school students and teachers participated in the drives. A short course with reading

matter covering two months was drawn up for such drives. In 1961, the State started the *gram shikshan* drive, which aims to make whole villages literate through voluntary effort.

CONCLUSION

We have surveyed in brief the main features of the educational administration of the Maharashtra State. In the course of our survey, we have referred to some of the problems which the State has to solve as a result of integration of the different units due to States' reorganisation, which was done twice. One of these problems is securing uniformity in administrative patterns at the district level. In old Bombay districts, there are three officers at the district level, one in Class I and two in Class II. In the Marathawada, there are two officers at the district level, one in Class I and one in Class II, while in Vidarbha there is only one Class II officer at the district level. Due to rapid educational expansion, work is fast increasing at the district level and it is felt necessary to strengthen the district level staff in the Marathawada as well as in Vidarbha. This problem will be solved with the introduction of the democratic decentralisation pattern in the whole State in the near future. This pattern provides for one Class I officer for each district, who will be the secretary of the education committee of the district council. The second problem is the introduction of free and compulsory education in all the units of the State. For this purpose, a compulsory education act of a uniform type applicable for the whole State will be necessary. The old Bombay area is governed by the P.E. Act of 1947, while the other two units are governed by their own P.E. Acts. With the passing of the democratic decentralisation bill, the Bombay P.E. Act of 1947 is amended by deleting all the provisions referring to the district school boards in it. Thus it will continue to be applicable to municipal school boards as at present. Once the administrative pattern of district councils is applied to districts, uniformity will have to be secured in the educational administration of municipalities too. Here the recommendations of the Primary Education Integration Committee for creating authorised municipalities will have to be considered for introducing uniformity in the educational administration in the municipalities.

With reference to the contents of education at the primary and secondary stage, the problem is to have an integrated pattern all over the State. The curriculum for primary schools is to be remodelled on the Basic pattern. Basic education is at present at different levels of progress in various units of the State. Expansion programmes in Vidarbha and the Marathawada will have to be accelerated to secure uniform progress in Basic and primary education all over the State. The programme of orienting all primary schools towards the Basic pattern is to be speeded up for eliminating rival patterns of education at the primary stage. The problem to be tackled in secondary education is

that of instituting the higher secondary pattern in the old Bombay districts and the provision of more courses in the higher secondary and multipurpose schools.

There are some statutory and advisory boards of education. In the old Bombay areas, we have the S S C Examination Board, the Primary Education Board and the Secondary Education Board. In the Vidarbha area, there is the Board of Secondary Education. The Primary Education Board has now on it representatives of the entire State. The statutory boards of secondary education have to be reorganised to represent the whole State instead of a region. Suggestions for the integration of statutory boards have been made by the Secondary Education Integration Committee's Report.¹ These have to be considered and implemented.

Another problem is that of securing greater efficiency in the administration of primary education. Rapid expansion schemes are being undertaken at this stage. Wastage and stagnation in primary education have to be prevented. For this purpose, the village school will have to be better staffed, better supervised and better equipped. Much can be done through local initiative, which has to be tapped. In the democratic decentralisation set-up to come, it will be possible to concentrate on the improvement of village schools through local initiative and effort.

We shall conclude by referring to the State's progress in the implementation of the Second Five Year Plan. Major schemes in the field of primary, secondary and teacher education were included in the Plan. The provision for education was 13.92 crores of rupees as against a total state provision of 204.41 crores. Education gets 6.8 per cent of the total provision. The State's expenditure in the first four years came to 10.81 crores of rupees, which works out to 77.61 per cent of the total lay-out. The progress is as per schedule and no difficulty will be experienced in fully utilising the plan provision and achieving the expected targets by the end of the Second Five Year Plan.

MYSORE

SRI A. C. DEVE GOWDA AND SRI D. R. MURGENDRAPPA

THE STATE

"Mysore", wrote Jawaharlal Nehru, in his greetings sent on the occasion of the inauguration of the new State of Mysore on the first of November, 1956, "has in many ways been a model state in India in the past. It has high traditions to keep. I hope it will preserve them and add to them."¹

The new State of Mysore includes the following areas:

1. Ex-Mysore State Area including the following nine districts: Bangalore, Chikmagalur, Chitradurga, Hassan, Kolar, Mandya, Mysore, Shimoga and Tumkur.
2. Madras-Karnatak Area including the two districts of Bellary and South Kanara and the Kollegal Taluka Bellary District of Madras State was merged with Mysore State on October 2nd, 1953, consequent on the formation of Andhra Pradesh. South Kanara District and Kollegal Taluka of Madras State became parts of the new Mysore State on 1-11-1956. Kollegal Taluka was added to the Mysore District of Ex-Mysore State area.
3. Bombay-Karnatak Area including the four districts of Bombay State, viz., Belgaum, Bijapur, Dharwar and North Kanara
4. Hyderabad-Karnatak Area including the three districts of former Hyderabad State, viz., Bidar, Gulbarga and Rajchur.
5. Coorg District which was formerly a centrally administered area.

N. B. : Bangalore Civil Area, frequently referred to as the Cantonment Area was merged with Bangalore City soon after independence. The Bangalore City Corporation Area including the City Area and the Cantonment Area is an independent district for educational purposes.

The area of the State is 74,347 square miles and the population according to the Census of 1951 was 19,401,193. The population in 1961 was 2,35,47,081.² For general administration purposes, the 19 districts of the State are divided into four divisions, with a divisional commissioner in charge of each division. These are the details:

¹ Nehru, Jawaharlal. *Mysore Raya*. Government of Mysore. Department of Information, November 1, 1956.

² *India*, 1961. p. 544.

1. BANGALORE DIVISION: Bangalore, Bellary, Chitradurga, Kolar and Tumkur.

2. MYSORE DIVISION: Chikmagalur, Coorg, Hassan, Mandya, Mysore, Shimoga and South Kanara.

3. BELGAUM DIVISION: Belgaum, Bijapur, Dharwar and North Kanara.

4. GULBARGA DIVISION: Bidar, Gulbarga and Raichur.

The distribution of the population according to the Census of 1951 was:

TABLE 67
Distribution of Population, Mysore, 1951

Mother-Tongue		Per cent	Religion		Per cent
Kannada	...	62.2	Hindu	...	85.1
Urdu	...	8.6	Muslim	...	11.7
Marathi	...	6.2	Christian	...	2.4
Telugu	...	11.3	Others	...	0.8
Tamil	...	3.5			
Others	..	2.8			
RURAL	...	149,45,208	MEN	..	98,54,608
URBAN	...	44,55,985	WOMEN	...	95,06,585

The percentage of literacy according to the 1961 Census is: males, 36.0; females, 14.2; total, 25.4.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

BEFORE 1954. — "As in the rest of India, so also in the State, there was then no organised system of Education."¹ Systematic state activity in education began with the famous Wood's Despatch of 1854. Then, Mysore was under the direct control of the British Government. Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III had established in 1833 an English School at his own cost in Mysore. There were two special schools in Bangalore supported by the government.

THE DEVEREUX SCHEME — When the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 had to be applied to Mysore, the Hon. Devereux, the permanent judicial commissioner, drew up a scheme of education for Mysore which was approved by the Government of India on 6th February, 1857.² He provided for an administrative machinery, by which the scheme

¹ *Review of Progress of Education in the Mysore State for the Quinquennium, 1911-16*, p. 2.

² B. L. Rice. *Mysore*, Vol. I. p. 747.

was to be worked out. There were to be a director of public instruction, two inspectors, four deputy inspectors and twenty sub-deputy inspectors, a sub-deputy inspector for four *talukas* on an average, and a few administrative officers.¹ Up to 1866, the duties of the Director of Public Instruction were merged with those of the Judicial Commissioner and only in 1866, the Department was constituted as a separate unit and placed under the Director of Public Instruction.²

THE RICE SCHEME. — The Government of Mysore sanctioned in 1868 the scheme proposed by the Director, B. L. Rice. He suggested the opening of *hobli* schools to bring education within the reach of the masses. There were two circle inspectors, one deputy circle inspector for headquarters, eight deputy inspectors for eight districts and one Mohamedan sub-deputy inspector.

1868-1923. — During the next half a century, the following important events took place:

1. The designation of the Director of Public Instruction was changed in 1883 to Education Secretary to the Dewan, an office that included the duties of both the Police Secretary and the Census Superintendent. In 1884, Archaeology was substituted for police duties. In 1890, Education was separated and Sri H. J. Bhabha was appointed as the education secretary.

2. The headquarters of the Department of Education was shifted to Mysore in 1894 but was removed back to Bangalore in 1899.

3. In 1895, the designation of the Education Secretary was changed to Inspector General of Education, which was continued up to 1927.

1924-1945. — The higher inspectorate was reorganised many times during the period, 1924-45, with a view to enhancing the efficiency of administration. In 1924, two circle inspectors were replaced by three provincial inspectors, each responsible for secondary and normal schools, middle and primary schools, and science education. All were attached to the Office of the Inspector General of Education. The designation 'Director of Public Instruction' was revived in July, 1927. The year also witnessed the abolition of provincial inspectors and the appointment of two deputy directors of public instruction, with headquarters at Mysore and Shimoga, the latter being changed to Bangalore in 1932. The designations of the district inspectors and the assistant inspector-general were changed in 1927 respectively to district education officers and the deputy director of public instruction at headquarters.

¹ *Mysore Gazetteer*, Vol. IV. 1929. p. 496.

² *Mysore Educational Manual*, Vol. VI, p. 1.

The most important event of this period was the handing over of primary education in 1931 to the district boards along with the services of the district educational officers and assistant inspectors, who were designated as *ex-officio* school board officers and school board assistants. But in 1941, the resumption of primary education by government took place and consequently a Special Deputy Director of Public Instruction for Elementary Education was appointed.

1945-1956. — Since the dual control over the district educational officers by the divisional Deputy Director of Public Instruction in respect of secondary education, and by the Deputy Director of Public Instruction for elementary education in respect of elementary education led to many difficulties, a reorganisation of the inspectorate took place on 13th July, 1946.¹ Accordingly, the three deputy directors of public instruction were attached to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction. They were placed in charge of high schools, middle schools and primary schools of the entire province. The district educational officers were empowered to inspect high schools and middle schools at *taluka* headquarters, while the inspectors of schools, formerly called assistant inspectors of education, were authorised to inspect rural middle schools in addition to the inspection of primary schools.*

There was again a reversion to the old system of territorial jurisdiction of the deputy directors of public instruction in 1955 as a result of the rapid expansion of education and undesirable concentration of control at the headquarters. The State was divided into three divisions for educational purposes, and each division was placed under the administrative charge of a deputy director of public instruction.

At the time of the reorganisation of the State on first November, 1956 the administrative set-up of education in the State is shown below:

1. The Director of Public Instruction had general control over all branches of education including technical education but excluding all colleges affiliated to the University of Mysore.
2. Three divisional deputy directors of public instruction at Bangalore, Mysore and Chitradurga with general control over all branches of education in their divisions and direct control over high schools.
3. Eleven district educational officers in the eleven districts, including Bellary District and Bangalore City District with direct control over middle schools.
4. Inspectors of schools, roughly one per *taluka*, in charge of primary education.

AFTER 1956. — Some important changes have taken place after the reorganisation of the states on 1st November, 1956. The government colleges, which were under the control

of the directors of public instruction in Madras-Karnatak Area, Bombay-Karnatak Area and Hyderabad-Karnatak Area, came under the control of the Director of Public Instruction in Mysore. But on the 24th June 1960, they were all transferred to the control of the newly created post of the Director of Collegiate Education. Since that date, only the teachers' colleges are under the Director of Public Instruction.

As stated earlier, the Director of Public Instruction was also the *ex-officio* Director of Technical Education in Ex-Mysore area. This position continued till 19th October 1959, when a separate post of the Director of Technical Education was created and the Director of Public Instruction was relieved of his work in relation to technical educations.

In October 1960, the Government sanctioned the posts of a Joint Director of Public Instruction and an Additional Joint Director of Public Instruction to assist the Director of Public Instruction in his ever-increasing work.

ADMINISTRATION AT HEAD-QUARTERS

The Minister For Education And The Education Secretariat

The Minister for Education, who is an elected member of the State Legislature, is in charge of the following departments:

1. Department of Public Instruction,
2. Department of Technical Education;
3. Department of Collegiate Education;
4. Mysore and Karnatak universities;
5. Department of Printing, Stationery and Publications, and
6. Department of Archaeology.

He is assisted by a deputy minister for education, who is also an elected member of the State Legislature. The Education Secretariat consists of a secretary, a deputy secretary and five under-secretaries.

The Education Department: Its Organisation And Functions

THE DIRECTORATE. — The Director of Public Instruction is the head of the Department of Public Instruction and is responsible for the execution of the state educational policy. He controls and directs the personnel of the Department and is responsible for its efficiency and discipline. He discharges administrative as well as supervisory powers over the Department. At present he is assisted by following officers: (1) Joint Director of Public Instruction; (2) Additional Joint Director of Public Instruction; (3) Headquarters Deputy Director of Public Instruction as First Assistant; (4) Second Assistant; (5) Addi-

tional Assistant; (6) Planning Officer; (7) Assistant Planning Officer; and (8) Special Officer for Compulsory Primary Education.

The Director inspects all the offices of the divisional deputy directors of public instruction, all the 'teachers' colleges at the university level, the Graduate Basic Training College at Dharwar and the Government College of Physical Education at Bangalore. He also inspects some of the offices of the district educational officers.

The Joint Director and the Additional Joint Director, who are in general charge of secondary and primary education respectively, inspect some of the offices of the district educational officers, Sanskrit colleges and some of the teacher training institutions at the under-graduate level.

THE INSPECTORATE: *The Divisional Deputy Directors.* — The State is divided into five territorial divisions for educational purposes. Each division has a deputy director, who exercises administrative control and supervision over all grades of schools within his jurisdiction. He inspects all the offices of the district educational officers, the teacher training institutions and 25 per cent of the high schools in his division. The division of districts is shown below:

1. Deputy Director, Bangalore: Bangalore City, Bangalore District, Kolar and Tumkur.
2. Deputy Director, Chitradurga: Chitradurga, Shimoga, Chikmagalur and Hassan.
3. Deputy Director, Dharwar: Dharwar, Belgaum, Bijapur and North Kanara.
4. Deputy Director, Gulbarga: Gulbarga, Bidar, Raichur and Bellary.
5. Deputy Director, Mysore: Mysore, Coorg, Mandya and South Kanara.

The District Educational Officers. — The district educational officer is the educational head of the district responsible to the deputy director of public instruction. He inspects 75 per cent of the high schools in his district. He exercises general control and supervision over middle schools and inspects the offices of the inspectors of schools.

The Assistant Educational Officers. — There is one assistant educational officer in each district to assist the district educational officer. It is also proposed to have two or three assistant educational officers in each district and to place them in charge of a sub-division of each district. They are in direct charge of middle schools in the district.

Subject Inspectors. — With the object of giving educational guidance to the class-room teachers, a number of subject inspectors have been appointed. They are specialists in

English, Kannada, science and mathematics, social studies and physical education. Each division has five such subject inspectors. They assist the deputy director of public instruction and the district educational officers in the actual inspection of high schools. The inspection-work of high schools has become more efficient and systematic after the appointment of these subject inspectors. Their programme of inspection is prepared under the supervision of the deputy directors of public instruction.

Inspectors of Schools. — Inspectors of schools are in direct charge of primary schools in a *taluka* or a part of a *taluka*. They are responsible to the district educational officer. There is also a proposal to appoint deputy inspectors in all areas to assist the inspectors in inspection work. The inspector will then be in administrative charge of all the schools in the *taluka*.

BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. — The Bureau of Educational Research was established about 4 years ago in 1958 with the object of undertaking research in education and for writing text-books, guide-books, work-books and for revising the syllabus periodically. The Director of the Bureau has the status of a deputy director of public instruction and is assisted by two assistant directors.

TEXT-BOOK COMMITTEES — There are two text-book committees (one for primary and the other for secondary) of which the Director of Public Instruction is the chairman and the Director of the Research Bureau is the *ex-officio* secretary. These are assisted by an assistant secretary.

BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE — This Bureau, started about two years ago, is under a special officer who is assisted by two counsellors and four technical assistants. The Bureau conducts workshops, seminars and career masters' courses for teachers. It is in charge of guidance in schools and the maintenance of cumulative record cards in high schools.

EXAMINATIONS. — The Director of Public Instruction is the *ex-officio* Commissioner for Examinations and is assisted by a deputy commissioner for examinations with the status of a deputy director of public instruction and four assistant commissioners with the status of a district educational officer. All departmental examinations are conducted by this section. Some of the most important examinations are: (1) S.S L.C. Examination; (2) Teacher Training Examinations; (3) Music Examinations; (4) Sanskrit Examinations; and (5) Drawing Examinations.

OTHER OFFICERS. — There are some other officers who are attached to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction, These are:

1. Chief Inspector of Commercial Schools;
2. Inspector of Commercial Schools;
3. Special Officer for Audio-Visual Education;
4. Chief Medical Inspector of Schools;
5. Superintendent of Physical Education;
6. Special Officer for Home Science;
7. Special Officer for Hindi;
8. Special Officer for Technical Education;
9. Assistant Curator of Libraries;
10. Assistant Inspector of Arts and Crafts; and
11. Inspector of Sanskrit Schools.

Advisory Bodies

INTRODUCTION. — For effective organisation and administration of education in the State, various bodies which are advisory in nature are set up by the government from time to time. Some of the important bodies are discussed here.

THE STATE EDUCATIONAL INTEGRATION ADVISORY COMMITTEE. — Along with the re-organisation of the State, several systems of education prevailing in different integrated areas came into existence. To have uniformity at all educational levels, the government appointed in 1957 the State Educational Integration Advisory Committee with the Education Minister as Chairman and the Education Secretary as Secretary of the Committee.¹

THE STATE ADVISORY BOARD OF EDUCATION. — The Government appointed the State Advisory Board of Education² consisting of twelve members with the Education Minister and the Education Secretary as Chairman and Secretary respectively. The functions of the Board comprise of (1) advising the government on matters of policy relating to all grades except universities, (2) referring any question to any other board, (3) reviewing the recommendations of other boards and (4) co-ordinating the work of all the boards.

THE SECONDARY EDUCATION BOARD. — The Secondary Education Board has thirty-three members with the Director of Public Instruction as the Chairman and the Deputy Commissioner for Examinations as the Secretary. It considers all matters relating to secondary education in the State.

¹ G. O. No. PLNG (EDN) 651-70/ADJ. 6-2 of 21-2-1957.

² G. O. No. ED 705 ENS 57, dated 2-12-1957.

THE PRIMARY EDUCATION BOARD. — The Primary Education Board considers all questions concerning primary education. It consists of nineteen members with the Director of Public Instruction as its chairman.

THE BOARD FOR TEACHER TRAINING. — This board consists of twenty-five members and it advises the Department on all matters relating to the training of teachers at the undergraduate level in the State.

OTHER BOARDS. — There are several other boards, which are functioning in the Department. They are:

1. The State Advisory Board for Audio-Visual Education;
2. State Council for the Education of Girls and Women;
3. Sanskrit Examinations Board;
4. The Board for Commercial Examinations;
5. The Educational Library Committee;
6. The Music Examinations Board;
7. The Hindi Examinations Board;
8. The Advisory Board for Arts & Crafts; and
9. The Advisory Board for Physical Education and Recreation

The Director of Public Instruction is the chairman of all these above boards and committees.

Statutory Bodies

There are very few statutory bodies dealing with education in the State of Mysore. These are found only in the four districts of Bombay-Karnatak area and the two districts of Madras-Karnatak area. The district school boards (four in number) and the municipal school boards (five in number), which were constituted under the Bombay Primary Education Act 1947, are in charge of primary education in the four districts of Dharwar, Belgaum, Bijapur and North Kanara. In Bellary and South Kanara districts, the district boards were in charge of primary schools till the abolition of the district boards a few years ago.

RELATION OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT AND THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT WITH UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

INTRODUCTION. — There are two universities in the Mysore State, viz, the University of Mysore and the Karnatak University at Dharwar. Both these universities are teach-

ing as well as affiliating universities. In the former the Vice-chancellor is appointed by the Chancellor while in the latter he is elected by the Senate out of a panel proposed by the Syndicate. The Governor of Mysore is the Chancellor of both the universities and the Minister for Education is the Pro-Chancellor of the University of Mysore. Both the universities get grants from the State Government.

UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE. — The Director of Public Instruction is an *ex-officio* member of the Syndicate, Senate and Academic Council of the University. He is also a member of the Board of Studies in Education and many of the Faculties including the Faculty of Education. The Vice-Chancellor or his representative is a member of the Secondary Education Board and the Text-Book Committee for Secondary Schools. This mutual relationship is intended to bring about a better co-operation between the University and the Education Department. It may be noted that three heads of high schools are members of the Academic Council and not less than two heads of high schools are members of the Senate.

Up to first January, 1957, the University of Mysore was practically a Department of the State Government and all the teaching and non-teaching members of the staff, including the Vice Chancellor, were government servants. Most of the colleges were managed by the University or by private bodies. Only a few colleges were directly managed by the government. On 1-1-1957, the University became autonomous and all the university colleges acquired a new status. The staff of the colleges technically ceased to be government servants and became university employees.

KARNATAK UNIVERSITY. — The Director of Public Instruction is an *ex-officio* member of the Senate and the Syndicate of this University also. Three teachers and two heads of secondary schools are the members of the Academic Council.

At the time of integration, the Karnatak University was of purely affiliating type and without any colleges of its own. In 1958 the Karnatak College at Dharwar, which was a government college, was handed over to the Karnatak University. The college was further bifurcated into an Arts College and a Science College. These are now being administered by the University.

DIRECTOR OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION. — On the 24th of June 1960, the post of a Director of Collegiate Education was created by the government with the two objects: (1) to relieve the Mysore University of its administrative duties relating to the large number of colleges managed by it; and (2) to enable the Mysore University to concentrate on post-graduate teaching and research.

The Director was placed in charge of all colleges, except three of the arts and science and commerce colleges, which were till then managed by the University of Mysore or the Director of Public Instruction. All the teachers' colleges were placed under the control of the Director of Public Instruction. The medical colleges were handed over to the Medical Department. The existing colleges can be classified into three categories:

1. University Colleges. Five in number—(3 managed by the Mysore University and 2 managed by the Karnatak University);
2. Government Colleges managed by the Director of Collegiate Education, Director of Public Instruction, Director of Medical Services, Director of Technical Education, Director of Agriculture, etc.; and
3. Private Colleges.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

ORGANISATIONAL PATTERN — At the time of integration, each area had its own pattern of education and to bring about uniformity the government constituted the Educational Integration Advisory Committee. The Committee has decided that the final set-up of education in the new State should be one of 7 years of primary education followed by 4 years of secondary education. Accordingly, the pattern is being brought into effect in a phased manner as shown below.

TABLE 68
Reorganisation of School Education, Mysore

Year			Standards			
1959-60	Primary	:	Stds. I & II	
1960-61	—	:	— II & IV and Secondary	Stds. VII
1961-62	—	.	— V & VI,	IX
1962-63	—	:	— VII and	X
1963-64	—	:	— VII and	XI

The XI Standard would be equivalent to the Pre-University Course and would be started in some schools only depending upon the staff, equipment and accommodation and they will be called higher secondary schools. The other schools which would be called high schools will stop at the X Standard. There will be a Public Examination at the end of the X Standard, which would be equivalent to the present S.S.L.C. or S.S.C. Examination. Those who pass in this examination could join the XI Standard in the same school or in any other higher secondary school or join the P U C in any college or seek admission in a polytechnic or a teacher training institute or seek employment. There will be another Public Examination at the end of the XI Standard, which would be equivalent to the P.U C Examination

MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS — So far management is concerned, there are four different types of high schools in the State (1) Government high schools managed by the Education Department or some other Department like the Fisheries' Department; (2) municipal or corporation high schools; (3) State district board high schools; and (4) private high schools. The present policy of the government is to encourage private organisations to start and run high schools

In the case of government high schools, appointments are made either through the Public Services' Commission or through District Staff Selection Committee. It is proposed to introduce a uniform system of staff selection through Divisional Recruitment Committees. Transfers between one division and another are effected by the Director of Public Instruction, while the Deputy Directors of Public Instruction effect transfers within their own divisions. For purposes of promotion, the State Seniority list is followed.

For purposes of transfer and promotion of teachers, the district board high schools form one unit while the municipal high schools form another unit. These administrative powers are vested in the Director of Public Instruction. Municipal high schools are managed by municipal high school committees. So far as private high schools are concerned, they are managed by their own committees of management and are controlled through the grant-in-aid code.

SUPERVISION AND INSPECTION — All high schools are under the direct academic control of the Department of Public Instruction, which prescribes rules of recognition, courses of study, text-books, scheme of examinations, etc. The district educational officers and the deputy directors of public instruction inspect the high schools periodically with the assistance of Subject Inspectors. The S.S.L.C. Public Examination is conducted by the Secondary Education Board.

During the second plan period, some high schools were converted into multi-purpose high schools. These institutions prepare candidates for the Multi-purpose High School Examination, which is considered as equivalent to the P.U.C. Examination.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

BASIC EDUCATION. — Primary education now means the integrated primary course of 7 years, comprising of four years of junior primary education and three years of senior primary education or junior Basic of 4 years and senior Basic of 3 years. Basic education has been accepted by the State and attempts are being made to convert all primary schools into Basic schools but the progress is very slow on account of administrative and financial difficulties. But a common syllabus has been adopted in both Basic and non-basic schools, certain approved activities taking the place of craft-work in non-basic schools.

ADMINISTRATION — Primary Schools are directly managed by the Education Department in Ex-Mysore Area, Hyderabad-Karnatak Area and Coorg. In Bombay-Karnatak area, they are managed by district school boards and municipal school boards. In Madras-Karnatak area, they are run by district boards and *panchayats*. The question of handing over primary schools to the control of *taluka* boards all over the State is under the active consideration of government.

COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act was passed in April 1961 and compulsion is being enforced from first of August, 1961 all over the State for children in the age group 6-7. In the next four years, it will be extended upwards so as to bring in all the children between the ages of 6 and 11 into our schools by the end of the Third Plan.

SUPERVISION AND INSPECTION — Academic control is maintained by the Education Department and all schools have to follow the prescribed syllabus and text-books. Inspection of junior primary schools is done by inspectors of schools, while that of senior primary schools is done partly by the inspector of schools and partly by assistant educational officers.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

INTRODUCTION. — There are many other branches of education which are managed by different departments and agencies. A few of those branches are treated here with reference to their administration.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — The control of technical education and professional education has been vested in more than one agency or department. The Department of Indust-

ries and Commerce operates some industrial schools; the Department of Agriculture manages agricultural colleges and schools; medical colleges and schools are under the control of the Director of Medical Services. Commercial schools are managed by private agencies but are inspected by the Inspector of Commercial Schools. Commerce colleges are administered by the Director of Collegiate Education. The Government Law College is directly under the control of Government. Lastly, technical colleges, schools and polytechnics are under the control of the Director of Technical Education. Until 1959, the Director of Public Instruction was also the *ex-officio* Director of Technical Education. But now there is a separate Director of Technical Education.

For co-ordinating the work of all the technical and industrial institutions, a central authority called the Council of Technical Education was constituted in 1952. It may be noted that technical and professional colleges are affiliated to the Mysore University and the Karnatak University.

ADULT EDUCATION: *Ex-Mysore*. — The Adult Education in the Ex-Mysore area is looked after by a body called the Mysore State Adult Education Council, which came into existence in 1942. The major portion of the expenditure of the Council is met by the State Government in the form of subsidy, while the remaining portion is met from the funds given by the UNESCO through Gift Coupon Project, the Ford Foundation and the Union Government.

Bombay-Karnatak Area. — Adult Education is organised and administered by the government through a council called the Regional Social Education Committee. It is situated at Belgaum. There is a non-official chairman and an official secretary. They are responsible for the organisation of literary classes, libraries and other activities. The departmental officers, namely the educational inspectors, deputy educational inspectors and assistant deputy educational inspectors inspect these classes and libraries.

Other Areas. — There is no agency to look after social education work in Hyderabad-Karnatak Area. In Coorg and Madras-Karnatak areas, social education is managed by government through social education officers.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Pre-primary education is mostly the responsibility of private and local bodies in the State. The government encourages pre-primary education by meeting 70 per cent of the approved expenditure in rural areas and 50 per cent in urban areas.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED AND DESTITUTE WOMEN. — The Department of Education runs two schools meant for the deaf and blind boys and one institute for destitute women. It assists private and local body schools by means of grants.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION. — There is a superintendent of physical education attached to the Officer of the Director of Public Instruction, 5 assistant superintendents of physical education attached to the offices of the divisional deputy directors of public instruction, and 20 inspectors of physical education attached to the offices of the district educational officers. The Superintendent of Physical Education is in over-all charge of physical education in the schools. The assistant superintendents help the deputy directors of public instruction and the district educational officers in the inspection of physical education in the high schools. The inspectors of physical education also help the district educational officers in the organisation and supervision of physical education in primary schools.

There is a government college of physical education to train graduate teachers in physical education and a Departmental Diploma in Physical Education is given at the end of the one-year course. There are also three private physical education colleges in the State. They offer a one-year certificate course in physical education to undergraduates.

TEACHER EDUCATION. — There are nine teachers' colleges in the State to train graduate teachers. Two of them are affiliated to the Karnatak University and seven to the Mysore University. Four are government colleges and the remaining 5 are private institutions. All the teachers' colleges are under the control of the Director of Public Instruction. Since there are many untrained graduates in service, the Department is deputing nearly 300 teachers every year for B.Ed. training at government cost. There is one post-graduate Basic training college to train inspectors of schools. This is a post-B.Ed. course and 30 teachers are deputed for training at government cost. There is also an Orientation Training Centre to give training for 3 months in Basic education to trained under-graduate teachers. There are nearly 70 teacher training institutes, both Basic and general, for training primary school teachers. Nearly half of these are state-managed and the rest are private. They offer a one-year course for S.S.L.C.s and a two-year course for non-S.S.L.C.s. The latter is meant only for those who are already in service and not for freshers. In Ex-Mysore area, untrained teachers were being recruited and deputed for training at government cost. There are also three nursery teacher training institutions in the State, two of them being government and the other one private.

During the year 1961-62, the Department has deputed nearly 140 graduate trained teachers to undergo the M.A. or M.Sc. Course in the Karnatak and Mysore universities to enable them to handle the XI Standard (New) Classes, which will be equivalent to the P.U.C.

EXPENDITURE OF EDUCATION. — The government has realised from the beginning that the education of the people is very essential for the progress of the State. Having that object in view, it has been spending a large amount of money on education. The estimated State income and the amount earmarked for education during 1959-60 and 1960-61 are shown below:

TABLE 69

Estimated Income and Expenditure on Education, Mysore (in rupees)

Year	Total Estimated Income of the State	Estimated Expenditure on Education	Percentage of Col. 3 to Col. 4
1	2	3	
1959-60	7,167.37 lakhs	11,32,90,700	15.1
1960-61	8,029.44 lakhs	13,21,24,700	16.6

The above statement shows that nearly one-sixth of the State's income is being spent on education under the Head "37 Education".¹ During 1957-58, the total expenditure on education was Rs. 13,16,42,294. Of this expenditure, 72.29 per cent was contributed by government, 3.38 per cent by district board funds, 2.68 per cent by municipal board funds, 12.52 per cent by fees, 0.67 per cent by endowments, and 8.46 per cent by 'other sources.'

It is thus clear that the government revenue forms the biggest source, while fee income forms the next big source. Municipal funds form an insignificant source. The amount of educational cess from the district boards is greater than that from the municipalities.

GRANT-IN-AID SYSTEM. — A proposal for a uniform system of grant for the entire State is recommended by the Director of Public Instruction. In the meanwhile, different systems are in operation in different integrated areas. Details are given below:

1. **EX-MYSORE.** — Generally 75 per cent of the net authorised expenditure is allowed as maintenance grant. Equipment grant and building grant are also given to schools at the rate of 50 per cent of approved expenditure.

(1) In the case of secondary education, the grant at 33½ per cent in rural areas and 30 per cent in urban areas based on the total admitted expenditure is sanctioned.

(2) In the case of primary education, different procedures are followed.

¹ Expenditure on "37 Education" is given here. Money on plans during the plan-period is not taken into account. Moreover, expenditure incurred by Agriculture Department, Medical Department, Industries and Commerce Department and Fisheries Department is not included in this normal expenditure.

A. *District School Boards*: Total expenditure minus (a) receipts in the form of cess, (b) Fees and fines, (c) contributions from the non-authorised municipalities and (d) miscellaneous. It works out to 96 per cent from government and 4 per cent from other sources.

B. *Municipal School Boards*: 50 per cent of the net approved expenditure is met by the government and the remaining 50 per cent by the municipal board.

C. *Cantonment Board*: 33½ per cent and 66½ per cent of the net approved expenditure is met by the government and the cantonment board respectively.

3. *Hyderabad-Karnatak Area*: The government meets two-thirds of the net expenditure on both secondary and primary education.

4. *Madras-Karnatak Area*:

(1) Secondary education: 66½ per cent of the net authorised expenditure is met by the government.

(2) Primary Education: (a) Aided Schools — the government meets the entire cost on teaching and gives a discretionary grant at 15 % as maintenance grant. (b) Local Body Schools: the government gives a fixed grant in respect of these schools to the extent of 66½ per cent.

5. *Coorg Area*: In the case of feeder schools Rs. 30/- is allowed per teacher per month, while 66½ per cent of the authorised expenditure is met by the government in the case of secondary schools.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

INTRODUCTION. — Each block has a schematic budget spread over two stages in a period of five years. This provision is meant for all developments including primary education in each block. The provision for primary education according to break-up prescribed by the government is as follows:

TABLE 70

Primary Education and Community Development Projects, Mysore

Block	Items	Recurring *	Non-Recurring	Total
I Stage	(1) Mid-day-Meals	Rs 11,250/-	..	Rs 11,250/-
	(2) Child Welfare	Rs 3,750/-	Rs 11,250/-	Rs 15,000/-
	(3) Construction of primary school buildings, etc	..	Rs 33,750/-	Rs 33,750/-
				Rs 60,000/-
II Stage	(1) Construction of primary school buildings, etc.	..	42,500/-	
	(2) Child Welfare	..	7,500/-	Rs 50,000/-
	Total...	Rs 15,000	95,000	Rs 1,10,000/-

A phased educational programme spaced over a period of five years is drawn up by the district educational officers for each block. The programme approved by the Director of Public Instruction will be sent to the block development officers for its implementation.

SOCIAL EDUCATION. — There is a social education organiser and a lady social education organiser in each block. At the district level, there is a district social education officer in some districts. At present all these organisers and officers are under the control of the Planning and Development Department.

With a view to organise social education activities on a more systematic basis and to have uniformity, there is a proposal for the formation of a State Social Education Council according to which the Director of Public Instruction will be the *ex-officio* Director of Social Education.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN EDUCATION

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The part played by private bodies is not very prominent in ex-Mysore and Hyderabad-Karnatak areas. There are some missionary schools and many private schools are run on grant-in-aid basis, especially in Madras-Karnatak and Bombay-Karnatak areas.

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — Private organisations are running high schools all over the State. The Department prescribes rules of recognition, such as the formation of the committee, the creation of stability funds, equipment and accommodation. Those schools, which satisfy these conditions, are recognised and given grants. There are some high schools, which are recognised but do not receive grants. All the recognised schools prepare their students for the departmental examinations.

MANAGING COMMITTEES OF SCHOOLS. — Many schools are run by Registered Societies but some are not. Each school has its own managing committee consisting of ten to twenty members co-opted as well as elected from among the members of the general body. The committee meets at least once in three months, considers the financial position, the progress made and other matters relating to the school. In some schools, the headmaster acts as the secretary. The following statement shows the distribution of schools according to managements in 1958-59:

TABLE 71

Distribution of Secondary Schools by Management, Mysore, 1958-59

Government	District Board	Municipal Board	Private (aided)	Private (unaided)	Total
14,507	5,917	428	11,942	163	32,957

The table shows that more than 33 per cent of schools belong to private bodies, while 18·8 per cent of schools are local body schools.

LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

PRIMARY EDUCATION.— In the Ex-Mysore Area, the local bodies have not taken any initiative and interest in primary education right from the beginning. The experiment of handing over primary education to district boards from 1931 to 1941 failed. The same kind of experiment was tried in Coorg up to 1953. Since 1941 in Ex-Mysore area and from 1953 in Coorg, primary education is the direct responsibility of the State.

But the situation is different in Bombay-Karnatak area. In the four Bombay-Karnatak districts, primary education is jointly administered by the Department of Education and the local bodies. These local bodies are district school boards and authorised municipalities and cantonment boards. They are statutory bodies according to the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947, and are independent of the district local boards and municipal boards. They have their own administrative and assistant administrative officers, who look after the organisation and administration of the schools. But the general control of the schools rests with the government, and these schools are inspected by the departmental inspectors.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.— Local bodies are running high schools all over the State except in the Hyderabad area. These schools are managed by Education Committees constituted by the Director of Public Instruction on the recommendations of the municipalities and district boards. The committee consists of the representatives of the local body, the department and the public. It meets periodically to review the work of the school, to pass the accounts and to administer the affairs of the school. Transfers and promotions do not come under the purview of the committee, since they are vested in the Director of Public Instruction.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

PRIMARY EDUCATION.— A major part of the development under general education has been in the field of primary education. In the first two plans, top priority was given to the starting of primary schools and training institutes. Under the Third Five-Year Plan, the first priority is given to the introduction of free and compulsory primary education from 1961. It is calculated that during the third plan period, an additional number of 10 lakhs children of age-group 6-11, both boys and girls, will have to be brought into schools. Over and above this, 19,000 teachers are to be appointed and 2,865 classroom are to be constructed. It is also planned to convert the existing primary schools into

Basic schools at the rate of 500 units a year and to raise the percentage of trained teachers to 77 by the end of the Third Plan. Girls' education is to be emphasised. The total estimated cost of the above items is Rs. 1,062.21 lakhs spread over five years.

SECONDARY EDUCATION — It is planned to open five government high schools per year during the first two years of the Third Plan and to convert 200 high schools into higher secondary schools during the entire plan period. This will result in the conversion of nearly 50 per cent of the existing high schools into higher secondary schools. It is also expected that 200 new high schools will be started by private bodies under the Third Plan. The total cost on secondary education will be Rs. 307.64 lakhs.

OTHER SCHEMES — The schemes such as audio-visual education, library service, youth welfare, institutes for the physically handicapped, training colleges, development of Hindi and other miscellaneous items such as A.C.C., N.C.C., *Bharat Sevadal*, technical education, literary and cultural development, the establishment of a text-book press are proposed under the Third Five-Year Plan.

The total outlay on all schemes including primary and secondary education is estimated to be Rs. 2,05.50 lakhs during the third plan period.

BACKGROUND

FORMATION OF THE STATE. — The State of Orissa came on the map of India as a new State in the year 1936. But the last independent king of Orissa lost his country in the year 1568 A.D. and with him vanished the period of peace and prosperity, which began in Kalinga after the accession of Kesaries in 520 A.D. Mansingh, the famous general of Emperor Akbar, annexed Orissa to the Mughal Empire. From that time began this dismemberment of Kalinga's frontiers — a part of which is now known as Orissa. Midnapur and Balasore districts went to Bengal, and by 1706 Midnapur was permanently ceded to Bengal. The Marhathas thereafter gradually began to raid Orissa and by 1751 the Bhonsle got Orissa from the Nawab of Bengal as a prize not to raid Bengal. Thus Orissa remained under the Marhathas till 1803 A.D. and her frontier was restricted to five 'Chakalās' bound by places Pipili, Cuttack, Bhadrak, Soro and Balasore.

By the treaty of Deogaon in 1803, the Marhathas ceded Orissa to the British but the feudatory states of Orissa remained outside the scope of the treaty. With the expansion of British power in India, Orissa's boundary of 1803 changed from time to time. Some of the Oriya-speaking tracts remained in Madras and Central Provinces, whereas the major part of Orissa became a continuation of the Presidency of Bengal.

The first consciousness of the Oriya people to come together is marked in the year 1848, when Oriya language was about to be discredited and was going to be substituted by the Bengali language in its place. It is after the terrible famine of 1866 in which one-fourth of Oriya population died, Sir Stafford Northcote suggested for the first time the separation of Orissa from Bengal. Thus the agitation for the unification of all the Oriya-speaking tracts into an independent province continued, and in the year 1903 the Government of India recognised this principle as an administrative measure. As a result of this, Sambalpur district was transferred from the Central Provinces and was added to the Orissa Division in 1906. When Bihar and Orissa was created as an independent province and separated from Bengal in the year 1912, Orissa no doubt claimed her separation as a separate province, but this demand was recognised in the Bihar and Orissa Assembly in the year 1919. The Simon Commission further appointed a sub-committee with

Major C. R. Atlee, now Lord Atlee, as its president to examine Orissa's claim as a separate province. On the recommendation of this committee, the Government of India Act of 1935 recognised the claims of Oriyas and thus the Province of Orissa was resurrected in the year 1936. Still large tracts of Oriya-speaking population remained in the neighbouring states of Bihar, Bengal, Madras and C. P.

When Orissa came into being as a new province in the year 1936, it got two districts from the Madras Province. At that time the princely states of Orissa were outside the political control of the governor of the province. For some time Ganjam and Koraput districts were known as South Orissa, the districts of Puri, Cuttack, Balasore and Sambalpur were known as North Orissa. After the merger of the feudatory states, the area of this new State is 60,162 sq miles with a population of, 75,65,645.¹ The State has 13 districts.

Geographically, Orissa has two very distinct portions. One is a belt of nearly flat country from 15 to 50 miles in breadth, extending along the coasts and the other an unregulating area broken by ranges of hills in the interior. This hill region represented formerly the feudatory states of Orissa with an area of 25,194 sq miles. She has a network of river system in which the Mahanadi, the Baitarani and the Brahmani occupy the key positions. These rivers through their yearly floods bring untold miseries to the people of Orissa. Her natural resources are rich in minerals like iron, coal, manganese and mica.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION — From the above short account of the historical development of the State, it will be clear that Orissa was carved out as a new state from Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Madras and Central Provinces, the native states remaining distinctly separate. Therefore, she brought in the different features of educational administration to be unified into a systematic whole in the year 1936. The feudatory states were also a problem, when they came into political administration of Orissa. In some of these feudatory states, education had just begun and in others the education was rather in a primitive condition.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The present administrative set-up of education of the State thus inherited the diversities of both parts of central and south Orissa. Before their amalgamation into a new province, the control of education for North Orissa began in 1844 when an inspector of schools was appointed for the Bihar and Orissa Division of Bengal. After the Wood's Despatch of 1854, a special inspector of schools took charge of the Orissa

¹ 1961 Census.

Division. Gradually as the schools grew in number in this part of the province, the inspectroate was strengthened and special inspection and direction was instituted for Mahomedan and Sanskrit education. This continued till 1936 when after the inception of the new province, the first Director of Public Instruction was appointed for Orissa. In Ganjam, the inspector of schools was known as the district education officer. This office was created in 1923, whereas the district of Koraput remained under the control of the inspectorate of Vizagapatam till 1936. After the transfer of these two areas of Madras in the year 1936, the office of the district education officer continued for some time but was later on abolished. This office was subsequently known as the Inspector of Schools, South Orissa, to bring in uniformity with that of North Orissa. In the year 1936 the total number of higher institutions were few and the Director had under him two inspectors of schools — one for the whole of North Orissa and the other for whole of South Orissa. He did not even have a deputy director of public instruction under him and for a long time he managed his office alone. The number of arts colleges in the year 1942 was 4, professional college 1, high schools 48, and middle schools 227. The total number of institutions in that year was 8,401. Leaving aside high schools, colleges and middle schools, the rest of the institutions were primary and special schools. This was the position of education till 1942.

ADMINISTRATION AT HEADQUARTERS

THE EDUCATION MINISTER AND THE SECRETARY OF EDUCATION. — The Minister of Education has a secretary to assist him regarding the administration of the department. The secretary of education has always been either an I.A.S. or an I.C.S. officer. He is assisted by a deputy secretary, who is ordinarily recruited from Orissa Administrative Service. For some time, a senior man from the Education Services was appointed as the deputy secretary. But recently that principle has been changed. The deputy secretary is assisted by a special officer cum-under-secretary and by an assistant secretary. The staff at the secretariat level checks up the plans and proposals submitted by the Director to the Minister and they see that the government policy is properly interpreted and acted upon by the Directorate. They finalise education budget with the help of the Finance Department and fix different new schemes of operation by the Director of Public Instruction.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT: ITS ORGANISATION AND FUNCTIONS. — Time has changed fast since 1942 and after the First Five Year Plan, there has been a rapid expansion in education. The number of colleges in the State has increased to 31, high schools to 943 and primary schools to 17,315. In addition, other varieties of institutions, whose

number is considerable, have sprung up. As such, the Directorate has expanded both in organisation and functions. The present Director has one joint director, four deputy directors including one for women's education and one adult education officer, besides two assistant directors of public instruction to assist him in his work. A publicity officer, a chief inspector of physical education, an inspectress of physical education and one accounts officer are attached to his office.

The Director of Public Instruction Orissa is the head of the Department of Education. He also acts as the technical adviser to government on all matters relating to education. The administration of engineering schools and other technical and industrial institutions is under the Director of Industries and that of the College of Medicine and the Ayurvedic College is under the charge of the Director of Health Services. The College of Veterinary Science and Animal Husbandry is under the control of the Director of Veterinary Services. The control and administration of the College of Agriculture and the schools of agriculture remain under the charge of the Director of Agriculture. *Sevashram* and *ashram* schools, which are meant for giving education to the *adivasis*, remain under the control of the government in the Tribal and Rural Welfare Department. The adult literacy schools in N.E.S. blocks are under the control of the Director of Community Projects. The Engineering College, Law College and teaching departments of the Utkal University are under the control of the Vice-Chancellor of the Utkal University.

The immediate subordinates to the Director of Public Instruction are the Joint Director for Secondary Education, the deputy directors of public instruction, the personal assistants, the assistant directors, the inspectors of schools and the inspectress of schools, the principals of government colleges of arts and science, the principals of teachers' training colleges, and colleges for Oriental Learning, the Organiser of Basic education, the Adult (social) Education Officer, the Publicity Officer, the Assistant Statistician and the Superintendent of Sanskrit Studies, the Chief Inspector of Physical Education, the Inspectress of Physical Education, the Superintendent of Research and Museum, and the Superintendent of Archaeology. Every other member of the Department is subordinate to one or the other of these officers and addresses the Director only through the officer to whom he or she is a subordinate.

The Director of Public Instruction is assisted by the officers named above. He is in charge of inspection of colleges for general and special education, and the teachers' training colleges. The administration and control of government colleges and the administration of grants to aided colleges rest with him. He also performs the duties of the

Inspector of Anglo-Indian Schools. The Joint Director for Secondary Education assists him in matters relating to secondary education in the State. The Director of Public Instruction is the President of the Board of Secondary Education.

The State is divided into seven divisions for the purpose of educational administration, each being designed as a circle and each circle under the charge of an inspector of schools. It is the duty of each inspector to see that the rules and regulations of the Department are strictly followed, accounts are properly kept and discipline is maintained in all the institutions under his control. He is responsible for the administration of grants to all recognised schools under private management. He recommends appointments and dismissals of teachers of private schools. The inspector inspects all boys' schools except those attached to government colleges and supervises the work of all district inspectors of schools. Schools attached to government colleges are inspected by principals of respective colleges. The training schools are either under the control of the circle inspector or under the control of the training college to which they are attached. There are assistant inspectors of schools working under inspectors of schools in those circles, where the number of schools is large.

There are thirteen districts in the State and each district has a district inspector of schools, who inspects middle schools, elementary training schools for boys and also supervises the work of deputy inspectors of schools, sub-inspectors of schools and assistant sub-inspectors of schools. He also acts as the educational adviser to the Chairman of the District Board.

The deputy inspector of schools inspects middle schools and elementary training schools within the subdivision and also supervises the work of sub-inspectors and assistant sub-inspectors of schools. The sub-inspector and assistant sub-inspector inspect primary schools.

The Deputy Directress of Public Instruction inspects all high schools for girls within the State. The whole State has been divided into three areas each consisting of four to five districts and one district inspectress has been kept in charge of each such area. There are three district inspectresses in the State and they are responsible for the inspection of middle and primary schools for girls in their respective jurisdiction.

The State has appointed trained matriculates as sub-inspectors of schools and also as assistant sub-inspectors of schools. Some of the assistant sub-inspectors of schools are also elementary trained non-matriculates. Deputy inspectors of schools are graduates and some of the sub-inspectors of schools are also graduates.

The Organiser, Basic Education, is assisted by an assistant organiser attached to his office. The Organiser controls and inspects all the Basic training schools, as well as all junior, senior and post-basic schools in the State.

The Adult (Social) Education officer is responsible for adult education in the State. There are three social education organisers and one audio-visual education officer under him. Besides, there are eight district social education organisers who work in block areas as supervisors of adult (social) education.

The Superintendent of Sanskrit Studies is the administrative head of Sanskrit *vidyapeethas* and aided Sanskrit colleges. He also inspects Sanskrit primary schools. He is assisted in his work by an assistant superintendent of Sanskrit studies.

The Chief Inspector of Physical Education supervises physical training of boys in schools and colleges. He is attached to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction. In each circle, there is an inspector of physical education under the control of the inspector of schools.

The Inspector of Physical Education supervises and directs the physical training of girls in high, middle and primary schools. There is a Special Inspecting Officer for Muslim Education. An inspecting *maulavi* also assists him in his work. He supervises all *madrasas*. But there is separate provision for teaching Urdu and Persian in Ravenshaw College, Cuttack. There are 23 high schools and 9 middle English schools in which Urdu and Persian are taught to Muslim boys and girls. These classes are also supervised by the Special Inspecting Officer.

There is a Superintendent of Archaeology and a Superintendent of Research and Museum. The Curator of Research Section, the Curator of Museum and the Curator of Archives assist him in the working of their special fields. There is also a departmental audit service consisting of 3 auditors attached to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction. Besides, there are auditors attached to the offices of inspectors of schools. They audit the accounts of schools and colleges under the Department.

There is a publicity section under the direct control of the Director of Public Instruction. This section is managed by the Publicity Officer. In order to meet the increased volume of work arising out of the Second Five-Year plan, a statistical unit has been created under the direct control of the Director of Public Instruction, Orissa. This section is managed by the assistant statistician.

ADVISORY BODIES. — There are a number of advisory bodies to help the Directorate in matters of education. The first important advisory body is the 'Board of Basic

Education.' This Board advises the government in respect of Basic education. The Sanskrit Council advises the Government in respect of Sanskrit education. The Madrasa Examination Board is concerned with Arabic, Urdu and Persian education in general and conducts examinations. This Board advises the government in respect of Arabic, Urdu and Persian education in the State. The Board of Anglo-Indian Education advises the government in respect of Anglo-Indian education. The State Audio-visual Board advises the Directorate in respect of audio-visual education. The Children's Literature Academy has been recently formed and it advises the Director of Public Instruction in the preparation of children's literature. Besides, there is a working group on education which discusses plans and schemes. These schemes are further discussed by the State Advisory Board of Education, which finalises the Five-Year development plans.

THE BOARD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION — The Board of Secondary Education is constituted to regulate, control and develop secondary education in Orissa by providing varied courses of studies with a view to equipping the pupils for different occupations in life, for higher education in the university and also for other cultural purposes. It conducts examinations based on such courses and awards certificates to successful candidates.

The Board is a body corporate with perpetual succession and a common seal with powers to acquire and hold property both movable and immovable and according to the provisions of the Act, to transfer any property held by it and to control and do all other things necessary for the purpose of its functions.

The Director of Public Instruction is the President of the Board and the Joint Director of Public Instruction is its Vice-President. Besides teacher representatives, the legislature is also represented on the Board. Ordinarily it has two sittings a year when all the members of the Board are to finalise matters relating to the control and supervision of secondary education in the State. The Board has recently started a high school of its own.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

UTKAL UNIVERSITY. — The State has only one university, viz., the Utkal University. It is a statutory body and prescribes the courses of studies for colleges of general education and conducts examinations based on such courses. The Utkal University is mostly an affiliating body and has a few colleges directly under its control like the College of Engineering at Burla and the Madhusudan Law College at Cuttack. It has a chancellor, a pro-chancellor, a vice-chancellor, the registrar, the senate, the syndicate and the academic

council. The governor of the State is the *ex-officio* chancellor. The pro-chancellor is appointed by the chancellor and his function is to preside over the meetings of the senate and in the absence of the chancellor to perform his duties. The vice-chancellor's appointment is made from a panel of 3 persons recommended by the senate. The vice-chancellor controls the services of the university. The university receives block grants from the government for the development of higher education. Besides Madhusudan Law College at Cuttack and the Engineering College at Burla, the university runs a post-graduate department in physics and has a foreign language class under its direct management. It has now opened post-graduate classes in geology, zoology, anthropology, philosophy, statistics and home economics. It also receives grants from the University Grants Commission and conducts research-work. The university is independent of government control. It has its own library. It encourages and promotes studies and research in different branches of knowledge. It is also helped by the *Jnyan Bynjan Parishad*. It organises conferences at Cuttack and sends its representative to different conferences in India. It has taken up the work of compiling an encyclopaedia.

RELATION OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT AND THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT WITH UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

The state government for all practical purposes does not control the affairs of the Utkal University. It awards grants to the university for 46 various schemes of development and also sanctions block grants to meet financial deficit in the university budget. When doing this, it exercises the right to question the propriety of any expenditure incurred by the university. The Governor of the State, who is also the chancellor, appoints the vice-chancellor in consultation with the Minister of the State. The post of the vice-chancellor is a paid one and is governed by the regulations of the university. It may be noted that the university has its own statutory rules, governing its subordinates and professors and lecturers of its teaching departments. The government has nothing to do with the internal administration of the university. The Director of Public Instruction, as a representative of the government, is an *ex-officio* member of the syndicate. He represents government's views and safeguards its interests. The state legislature has the power to amend the statutes and regulations which are in operation in the university and has its representatives on the senate to safeguard the interest of the state government.

Most of the colleges in the State are government colleges. Out of 31 colleges in 1959, only two colleges are managed by the university. The teachers of state colleges are guided by government rules and regulations in respect of pay and service conditions.

They are government servants but they follow the syllabuses prescribed by the university for different examinations. The standard of examinations and that of teaching, accommodation and other things pertaining to teaching in a college are controlled by the university by its special directives under different statutes and regulations. Affiliation of different subjects in a college is also the responsibility of the university.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION — In the year 1959, the total number of high schools in this State was 379 and that of middle schools was 943. These include 62 *ashram* schools, which are of middle standard and impart education to the *adivasis*. Although secondary schools mean high schools and middle schools combined, still some of these schools have primary classes attached to them. Their main function is to impart secondary education, that is, education of the adolescent. The designation of the different officers controlling and inspecting these schools have been previously mentioned. They are inspectors of schools, district inspectors of schools and deputy inspectors of schools. The Director of Public Instruction sanctions grants-in-aid to high schools managed by private bodies and lump grants to local bodies for giving aid to secondary schools managed by the local bodies. The district inspectors of schools sanction grant-in-aid to middle schools from the lump allotments placed at their disposal by the Director of public Instruction through the inspectors of schools. The circle inspectors inspect high schools.

There are variations in the schemes of classes in institutions reckoned as secondary schools. Some high schools have 8 classes (Cl IV to Cl XI), some have six classes (Cl VI to Cl XI), others only have 4 top classes (Cl VIII to Cl XI). Middle schools generally have 4 classes, i.e., Cl IV to Cl VII, but some have lower primary classes attached to them, and some have the top two classes — VI and VII only. The duration of secondary education is, however, of six years after five years' course of primary education. Classes are numbered continuously from the Infant Class to Class XI.

SCHOOLS AND PUPILS — High schools which are managed by government fall into two categories, viz., (i) high schools at the district headquarters and (ii) 'A' type high schools. The headmasters of the first category are in Orissa Class II Educational Service whereas, those of the second category are in Subordinate Educational Service. Some schools in the ex-State areas are given the full deficit in respect of recurring expenditure in order to enable the management to pay the teachers the same scales of pay as prescribed for schools managed by the government. They are designated as 'B' type high schools so as to distinguish them from aided schools but since the government is

responsible to a large extent for the continuance of those schools, they have been returned as government managed schools. The teachers of these schools enjoy the benefits of contributory provident fund. Their posts are non-pensionable. In addition to the above types of high schools in the ex-State areas, there are also private high schools aided by government. They are paid grant-in-aid at the rate of two-thirds of the net deficit. But aided girls' high and middle schools of the ex-State areas are given grant-in-aid to meet their full deficit. Further two high schools for boys are given grant-in-aid to meet their full deficit under special orders of government. In addition to the above, the managements of 17 high schools which were managed by the district boards and 3 high schools managed by *anchals* were recently transferred to the direct control of the Education Department. These high schools are called government-managed full-deficit-aided high schools. The teachers of these schools enjoy the benefit of contributory provident fund.

In three of the above secondary schools, the multipurpose syllabus has been introduced and such schools are named as higher secondary schools. Two of these are meant for boys and one is meant for girls. There are two aided Anglo-Indian high schools at Cuttack. They admit pupils, who wish to prosecute their studies through the medium of English. They prepare candidates for the School Certificate Examination, conducted by the Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate of England. They are governed by the code of regulations for European Schools of Bihar and Orissa with regard to administration and payment of grants by the state government. They have their branches also in other parts of the State. The Director of Public Instruction is the inspector of these institutions.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION — Primary education means education given through the mother-tongue in the prescribed course leading up to the middle stage. The course covers a period of six years and consists of two stages — a lower primary stage from Infant Class to Class III and the upper primary stage consisting of classes IV and V.

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL — Primary education is provided for in the primary schools and in the junior Basic schools. It is also provided in the *sevashrams* and in the lower classes of some secondary schools, senior Basic schools and *ashram* schools. The Basic schools follow the Basic method of teaching and a craft-centred curriculum. The primary schools follow a modified syllabus prepared on Basic lines. The courses of studies followed in junior Basic schools are prescribed by the Hindusthani Talimi Sangha. The primary schools follow the courses prescribed by the Education Department. The Organiser of Basic Education supervises and controls Basic schools. The inspecting officers of the Department supervise and control primary schools.

As far as the management is concerned, government are fully responsible for primary schools in scheduled areas in the districts of Ganjam, Koraput and Boudh-Pulbani and also to a large extent for such schools in ex-state areas. Most of the primary schools in the districts of Cuttack, Puri, Balasore, Sambalpur are aided by local bodies, such as, district boards, local boards, *grampanchayats* and municipalities. Teachers are appointed by these bodies in consultation with the district inspectors of schools and the government places funds at their disposal for giving financial aid to these schools. A few schools are also under the direct management of local bodies like district boards and municipalities.

SCHEMES OF SCHOOL CLASSES — As there is no separate arrangement for the education of infants in the State, the primary schools are so designed as to provide education suited to both infancy and childhood, that is for children of the age group 5-11 by attaching a special class for infants to each primary school. Thus a full-fledged primary school which is known as an upper primary school has six classes, viz, the Infant Class and Classes I to V. Primary schools, having only the first four classes (Infant Class and Classes I to III), are known as lower primary schools. A public examination is held at the end of the upper primary stage, i.e., at the end of Class V.

SCHOOLS — Most of the above two types of schools follow the courses prescribed by the Education Department but only a few have arrangements for teaching Sanskrit and Urdu. Primary schools with provision for teaching Sanskrit are known as Sanskrit primary schools and those having provision for teaching Urdu are known as Urdu primary schools. Thus the State has four types of recognised primary schools, viz, (i) upper primary, (ii) lower primary, (iii) Sanskrit primary and (iv) Urdu primary. There are also a few primary schools having provision for teaching Hindi, Bengali or Telugu as a bilingual subject.

The Department is responsible for the inspection of primary schools. Each sub-inspector has to supervise and control the work of nearly 100 primary schools on an average in a year. In the areas where compulsion has been introduced, the responsibility of the staff has become very great. The inspector has to take care of stagnation and wastage in primary schools. He has also to pay attention to the problems created by the large number of single-teacher schools, which exist in the State. He is also responsible to see whether the syllabus prescribed by the government is followed by the school or not. He supervises physical education of children, as it is compulsory in primary schools. He also strives to help the institutions in having proper type of well-equipped buildings. In addition, he helps the headmasters of primary schools to carry on experiments in teaching materials and pedagogical fields.

The total number of primary schools in the State in the year 1959 was 17,315. This includes recognised and unrecognised schools also. Under 7 circle inspectors of schools, there are 13 district inspectors of schools, 30 deputy inspectors of schools, 257 sub-inspectors of schools and 70 assistant sub-inspectors of schools. These are officers responsible for the inspection of primary education.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — The technical schools, besides teacher training schools, are classified under the following heads: (1) the school of engineering, (2) the industrial school, (3) the craft school, (4) the school of commerce, (5) the school of nursing and midwifery, (6) the school of agriculture, (7) the school of forestry, and (8) the Basic agriculture school for training *gram sevikas*.

The first 3 categories of schools are under the control of the Director of Industries and the last 5 are under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, the Director of Health Services, the Director of Agriculture, the Director of Forest and the Director of Community Projects respectively. Under the Director of Community Project, the production-cum-training centre has been opened. Besides these institutions, there are colleges of Medicine and *ayurvedic* medicine in this State. The *ayurvedic* college provides 4 years' course to the matriculates having sufficient knowledge in Sanskrit. Medical colleges take students after the intermediate stage.

Besides these, polytechnics have been established by private efforts on a grant given by the Government of India or by some other government agencies with the help of the Government of Orissa. In each case, the Director of Industries maintains control over them.

SOCIAL EDUCATION: Types. — The institutions that come within the scope of social education are: (1) Adult education centres run under the scheme of adult (social) education, (2) night schools for teaching young men and adults when they are not engaged in work, (3) schools for social work, and (4) social education centres run under the rural-cum-urban community development projects.

Programme. — The Community Development and the National Extension Services programmes have together given an impetus to adult (social) education. The aim of adult education is not only to spread literacy among the illiterate masses but also to create in them a desire for better living. For that reason, attempts have been made for the production of simple interesting literature suitable for the adults. Interesting visual aids have also been prepared. Audio-aids like gramophone records have been processed. Performances of dramas, playlets, *palas* and film shows have been organised. Most of this

work is done in the Office of the D.P.I. under the advice of Adult (Social) Education Officer, who is attached to that Office. He prepares literature for the neo-literates, distributes them in National Extension Services and Community Development blocks of the State.

Centres for adult education are organised in compact areas of the State, and are supervised by district organisers of adult education. The Social Education Organiser, who is in Class II of the Orissa Education Service, supervises social education activities in the Community Development and National Extension Service blocks in different districts. The Adult (Social) Education Officer, who is in the D.P.I.'s Office, directs and supervises the work of district organisers and audio-visual education officers. He supervises the activities of eight district social education organisers in the State. These eight officers, who are in charge of 13 districts, supervise social education activities in the National Extension Service and Community Development Blocks. The adult education centres opened in the State are not permanent institutions but are recognised for a period of 3 to 6 months except in the rainy seasons provided such centres fulfil all the required conditions laid down by the Department. The district organisers and the district social education organisers organise literacy centres, which are run in school buildings or in community centres of the village. The teacher or volunteer, who undertakes this work, is permitted to conduct classes for a period extending from 3 to 6 months. At the end of this period, an examination is conducted by district organisers. The volunteers and teachers are paid for their work. There is always proper co-ordination between Community Project Administration and Education Department in organising social education, and the expenditure under this head is jointly met from government funds out of the provisions of the Education Department and that of the Community Development Department.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — The education imparted in nursery schools is designed as pre-primary education. In Orissa, such a nursery school has been started only a month back. Previous to that, there were some pre-Basic classes attached to junior Basic schools. There are also a few kindergarten classes attached to Anglo-Indian and European schools of this State. The programme of pre-Basic education includes physical culture, medical care, personal and community hygiene and health, self-help, social training, creative activities, speech training, development of mathematical sense, nature study, art and music. The Organiser, Basic Education, controls the pre-Basic education and the Director of Public Instruction is the controlling authority in case of kindergarten education attached to European schools.

ASTHETIC EDUCATION. — This heading brings within its purview education in art, music, dance, drama and the like.

Art.—The State Government has an institution of arts and crafts, where training is given in different fields.

Music—This subject is taught as a co-curricular subject up to Cl VIII in secondary schools for girls and also as an optional subject for the High School Certificate examination. The *Utkal Nritya Sangit Natyakala Parishad* advises the government to foster and develop institutions in dance, dramas and music for the entire State. There are other aided schools in the State. They receive grant-in-aid from government and specialise in dance, dramas and music as the case may be. The private institutions are under the supervision of *Sangit Natyakala Academy* of Orissa. The D.P.I. controls them and provides machinery for their inspection.

Oriental Education — Oriental education is divided into two branches of studies, viz., (1) Sanskrit education and (2) Islamic education.

(1) **SANSKRIT EDUCATION** — The Superintendent of Sanskrit studies looks into the education in the *vidyals*. The Government Sanskrit College is under the charge of the D.P.I. The private colleges are affiliated to the Orissa Association of Sanskrit Learning and Culture, which acts as an advisory body for Sanskrit education.

(2) **ISLAMIC EDUCATION** — The recognised Islamic institutions are of two categories: (a) *Madrasas*, which prepare candidates for the examinations held by the Madrasa Examination Board of Bihar, (b) *Primary Urdu schools*, in which religious instruction in Islamic system is given in addition to secular instruction. There is a special inspecting officer for Mahomedan education, who is in charge of this branch of education and is under the control of the Department of Education. Some of these institutions are government managed and others receive grant-in-aid.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED — The Orissa Deaf and Dumb School at Bhubaneswar is the only institution of its type in the State. The management of this institution continued for some time in the hand of the government. But recently it is being controlled by the Red Cross Society, Orissa, which is a private organisation. There is no institution for delinquent children in the State.

EDUCATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES AND BACK-WARD CLASSES. — The State through its agencies provides scholarships, stipends and hostel accommodation for

students of these classes reading in schools. A special government department, known as Tribal and Rural Welfare Department, has been set up to look to the welfare of these people.

Since students belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are both economically and educationally backward, they are exempted from payment of tuition fees in all types of educational institutions. Besides, they receive lump government stipends and grants from the Tribal and Rural Welfare Department. The government also provides reading materials to students reading in primary schools. The Education Department helps the Tribal and Rural Welfare Department in the inspection of their schools, and in formulating the syllabus and curriculum of these schools. *Ashram* schools provide education up to the middle standard and *sevashram* schools provide education up to the primary stage. These institutions are meant for scheduled tribes people. The scheduled castes are also admitted in these schools. The Education Department thus co-operates in the smooth running of such institutions.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.—The State has a college, which imparts physical education to its students. Besides there are inspectors and an inspectress for physical education in the State. The government also provides coaching in athletics and games and organises district-wise or school-wise competitions in the State.

SCOUTS AND GUIDES.—The movement in this connection is being revived. The government is paying grants for this association. The Bharat Scouts Guide Association has now been its organising secretary.

The National Cadet Corps is also a part of the D.P.I.'s responsibility. The movement is spreading in schools and the work done by the cadets both in the junior and senior divisions is satisfactory. The D.P.I. through the Joint Director of Public Instruction controls the activities of the N.C.C.

SCHOOL MEALS AND MEDICAL SERVICES.—The Directorate provides mid-day meals and supplies powder milk to the children of primary and secondary schools occasionally. This system is more effective in those areas, which are affected by floods or cyclones. In addition, the school medical officer, who is under the D.P.I., visits aided and government schools.

LIBRARY.—There is a fairly good number of libraries in the State. These have been set up by private enterprise, and get grant-in-aid from government. The Director of Public Instruction controls these grants, makes necessary arrangement for the scrutiny of expenditure of such grants and provides money for libraries in government or aided colleges and schools.

RESEARCH SECTION OF THE STATE MUSEUM. — A research section has been established in the State Museum. It is controlled by the Superintendent, Archaeological Department, Government of Orissa. This officer is under the control of the Director of Public Instruction.

HINDI. — Hindi is the national language of the country, and it has received due recognition in the State. A special institute, Hindi Training Institute, Cuttack, trains teachers for imparting Hindi teaching in different schools

FINANCE

INTRODUCTION — There are fixed categories from which money is received for expenditure on education in the State. Major portion of the expenditure is met generally from government fund through different heads. Sources from private funds are limited. For that reason the expenditure on education may be broadly divided into two categories, viz, (1) expenditure in recognised institutions and (2) expenditure on un-recognised institutions. Expenditure on recognised institutions is divided into two types—'direct' and 'indirect'. The latter category includes expenditure on direction and inspection, buildings, scholarships and other financial concessions, hostel charges and other miscellaneous expenses. All other expenditure on recognised institutions is reckoned as 'direct' expenditure.

SOURCES OF INCOME — The main source of income is the fees realised from students by different institutions. The other sources of income are State Government funds, Central Government funds, and funds of local bodies like the district board, municipality, *anchal sasan* and notified area committee. Endowments and donations are also other sources of income. The sale proceeds from articles prepared and sold by the Basic schools and also by other technical and vocational institutions augment educational income.

The educational expenditure for that reason mainly depends mainly on land revenue and income from excise. The bulk of the income of the district boards comes from local cess and local rates. The education cess in the Ganjam district is generally $2\frac{3}{4}$ pies in a rupee of land revenue, while in North Orissa the education cess is 12 pies in the rupee. The total cess raised in Ganjam is 8 anna and $8\frac{3}{4}$ pies, and in North Orissa 1 anna only. The facts stated below will show how in the year 1957-58 total expenditure on education was distributed over different heads in different regions of the State.

The total population according to the 1951 census of the State was 1,46,45,946 out of which 1,40,51,876 live in rural areas. Hence about 90% of the population of the State live in rural Orissa. During 1957-58 as many as 7,34,017 boy students and 1,92,207 girl students from rural areas and 53,626 boys and 32,906 girls from urban areas were reading

in different educational institutions of the State. The total amount of expenditure on education during the year 1957-58 was Rs. 5,38,55, 022. Out of this, Rs. 4,28,069 was spent on unrecognised institutions and a sum of Rs. 5,37,23,612 was spent on recognised institutions. Out of the latter amount, Rs. 4,29,91,161 was met from government funds. So during 1957-58, 79.88 per cent of expenditure was met from government funds as against 81.13 per cent, during the previous year. Out of the total expenditure on education, 63.53 per cent was the expenditure on 'Direct' charges which comprise expenditure on salary of the staff, allowances, contingencies, etc. Expenditure on direction, inspection, hostels, scholarships, stipends, buildings, etc. which comprise the 'Indirect' charges accounted for the remaining 36.47 per cent. The expenditure on education was incurred out of the total budget estimate of Rs. 2,50,70,330.

GRANT-IN-AID-SCHOOLS — The Government grants to aided schools are of those two categories: (1) grants to high schools and (2) grants to middle English schools.

Grants to High Schools — The government pays a grant-in-aid two-thirds of the net deficit subject to a minimum of Rs. 75/- a month and the managing committee of the aided schools find out the remaining one-third of the net deficit. Such grants are awarded after consideration of the following main points: (1) the result of the final examination of the school, (2) percentage of students' attendance, (3) discipline and other curricular activities, (4) standard staff, (5) requisite furniture and equipments, etc.

Grants to Middle English Schools — The government pays as grant-in-aid two-thirds of the net deficit subject to a minimum of Rs. 30/- a month and the rest one-third of the deficit is met by the managing committee either from donations or by some other methods.

Grants to special schools aided by the government are not ordinarily to exceed two-thirds of the monthly cost without sanction of the government. Religious neutrality on the part of the institution is an important condition to receive state grants. Grants for equipments, furniture, buildings or for any other specific purposes are also given by government to schools as per rule laid down in the Education Code of the State. The grants are withdrawn provided the school fails to observe the rules of the Department and in case the examination results of the school is unsatisfactory, or there occurs any mismanagement in the organisation of the school.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN BLOCK AREA — The administration of education in block areas rests with the Community Development Department. The Education Department is responsible for opening new schools and for appointing new teachers and to pay them

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from the education budget, while it is for the block to look after the immediate needs of the existing primary and secondary schools regarding their accommodation and payment to teachers. The primary school buildings and hostels for middle English schools have to be provided under the Community Development Programme. The district inspectors of schools are members of the block committees and they represent the Education Department's views in the development of primary and other types of educational institutions started by the Community Development Department.

MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION. — The management of education in block areas is being made by the Community Development Department in consultation with the Education Department. The schools in the block areas are inspected by the inspecting officers of the Education Department. The block development officers also visit the schools to see the attendance in schools. There is also a social education organiser attached to the block and is subordinate to the block development officer.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT AND THE EDUCATION DIRECTORATE. — For any new system or experiment (pilot project) to be introduced in block areas, the Director of Public Instruction is required to write to the Community Development Department. Similarly, if the block officers want some projects to be carried through teachers, they obtain the permission of the Education Department. So in order to achieve the desired result, both the departments work hand in hand on a cooperative basis.

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN THE EDUCATION OF THE STATE LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The role of public bodies and private enterprise in the field of education in Orissa has been on the whole satisfactory. In the year 1906-37 when the State was separated from Bihar and became a new province the total number of high schools was as follows: government high schools (5), district board high schools (6), aided high schools (18) and unaided high schools (3). In the year 1943-44, the total number of high schools went up to 52 out of which only 6 were government institutions. In the year 1936-37, government had only 3 middle English schools whereas there were 119 other categories of middle English schools in the State maintained and managed by other agencies. In 1943-44, there were only 4 government schools out of 159 middle English schools in the whole State. This shows that with the help and aid received from government and with the necessary initiative that actually came from the public, expansion in the field of aided and private institutions became possible. In the year 1959, the number of

government high schools for boys and girls came to 72 and non-government schools for boys and girls came to 269. The number of government middle English schools for boys and girls came to 169 whereas non-government schools' number was 692.

This rapid expansion in the number of high schools and middle English schools came only after the establishment of the Utkal University in the year 1943. People both rich and poor contributed liberally for the development of education in the State. The people of the rural areas helped this progress no less substantially. The demand for high schools and middle English schools became so great that in the years 1949-50 the government decided not to give grant-in-aid to a high school or a middle school till three years of completion of such a school into a full-fledged institution. In spite of that, progress in this field has been uniform. This is a very encouraging feature when the present statistics is compared with that of 32 complete and incomplete high schools in the year 1936-37 and 122 middle English schools of the same year. In this development, district boards and municipalities have taken their full share, as will be seen from the figures already given above.

The institutions, either aided or private and even government, have their managing committees. In the control and management of other institutions not under the local authorities, public cooperation is sought by government by including both official and non-official members in the managing committees of such institutions. The managing committees are attached to all grades of institutions and their functions differ slightly according to the nature of the institution under their control. Each of the State colleges has its governing body appointed by the government. It examines college accounts, controls expenditure, advises in the inclusion of additional subjects in the scheme of studies of the colleges, and gives its views on the transfer and appointment of teachers. It can also deal with any other subject referred to it by the government.

The constitution of the governing body of the aided college is approved by government and all elections to this body are reported to the Director of Public Instruction. Its important functions are to appoint and relieve teachers, to allow preference in admission to some categories of students provided under rules, to approve holidays and to look after the general management of the college.

Each government secondary high school has its managing committee too. It is set up by government and the district education officer is its president. It is consulted in expelling students and in the appointment of teachers. It appoints the superintendent and assistant superintendent of the school hostel and the librarian of the school. It also sanctions school holidays. It exercises general direction and control over the headmaster in

his conduct of the current business of the school. The managing committee of an aided secondary school is guided by the rules and constitution framed by the Director of Public Instruction and is elected from time to time. Its general powers are: "All matters relating to the erection of buildings for the schools, the appointment, punishment and dismissal of teachers and of disposal are conferred by these rules on the secretary or headmaster, shall be brought before the committee and save as provided in the code, their decision shall be final."

The middle and primary schools also have their committees of management. Each committee elects its secretary, who receives grants and is responsible for the expenditure of school funds according to the conditions of grants.

LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

In managing and controlling primary education a great diversity is seen over the whole of the State which is due to the inheritance of different systems of local administration from the past. On the separation of North Orissa from Bihar, Puri, Cuttack and Balasore have three district boards, whereas Sambalpur has a district council instead. Recently Sambalpur has its own district board. These local authorities delegate their duties to local boards for managing primary education. Further, in addition to these local boards, there are union boards in Cuttack, Puri and Balasore districts in charge of primary education.

In South Orissa, there are two district boards, namely Ganjam and Koraput. The jurisdiction of the former extends over the whole of the revenue district of Ganjam, excluding the Agency Tract. Under the Ganjam boards, there were 6 major and 22 minor *panchaya* boards working in 1938. In Koraput, the *panchayat* boards are known as *taluka* boards and they manage primary education.

Besides these district boards, there were 19 municipalities in Orissa and 17 notified area committees in 1960. They look after primary and other types of education provided by law.

The district board in North Orissa maintains and manages primary and middle schools. It makes grants, provides hostels, repairs buildings, appoints masters, awards scholarships and spends money in improving schools. European education is outside its control. It makes laws regulating the maintenance and management of schools and grant-in-aid. It is not allowed to spend money on secondary education, and for the middle English schools. It receives grants from the government. Grants to it are given on the principle of strict religious neutrality. Special grants for compulsory education, buildings and scholarships are also sanctioned by the government.

Each district board appoints an education committee representing all sections of the people. The committee is concerned with finance, accounts and determines the conditions under which grants will be given to aided schools. The district inspector of schools is the educational adviser to the chairman of the district board. The chairman controls the work of the sub-inspectors and delegates powers to different local boards under him for maintaining primary schools.

The municipalities have also their education committees which are concerned with finance, accounts, maintenance and management of educational institutions. Their main task is the improvement of schools—private or their own—distribution of funds, appointment of teachers and granting of scholarships. Their budget estimates are prepared either by the district or deputy inspector of schools. The government pays additional grants to the municipalities in case it is in charge of compulsory education.

Thus the different local authorities, in spite of differences, are entrusted with organising and maintaining an efficient system of vernacular education in the areas under their control. Annual contribution is made to the boards by the government under conditions laid down by the latter. The government retains the power to approve the appointment of administrative officers, to sanction the budget, to fix the curricula and to audit the expenditure. It also loans the administrative officer. The sub-inspector of schools, although under the control of the chairman of the board or the municipality, is appointed by the inspector of schools in consultation with the chairman of the board or municipality. The chairman can suspend the sub-inspector but further proceedings are only taken up against him by the district inspector. This shows the unhappy position of the sub-inspector of schools. He is under the dual control of the local board authorities on the one hand, and the officers of the Education Department on the other. Although vernacular education is the primary concern of the local authorities, still the government, by its insistence on the observance of departmental rules by the local authority, by fixing the curricula and by controlling grants, does not allow too much freedom to the local boards in educational matters.

UNSATISFACTORY LOCAL MANAGEMENT. — Sometimes back, people in different schools felt that better results will come if the government takes over management of aided middle English and high schools from the hands of their managing committees. Three years before, because of this movement, the government took over the management of a large number of high schools on the basis of paying the net deficit and controlling the appointment of the staff. These institutions have now got advisory committees, which can merely look after the buildings and other development projects of the school. They can-

not interfere in the internal matters of the school and especially in respect of teaching. In the year 1959-60, the district board high schools of South Orissa have been taken over by the government for their management, and their teachers are still enjoying the advantages which they had previously under the district board. The government is thinking to change the function of the managing committees in a suitable manner in the near future. There are instances where the private managements of schools have not been able to function efficiently. The internal dissension, party feuds, subordination of public interest to personal advantage and general unwillingness on the part of the gentlemen of character and integrity to shoulder the responsibility in educational matters of their respective areas have been detrimental to the healthy educational development in many places. Irregular attendance in such schools, inadequate staff, poor salary of teachers and want of accommodation have brought in dissension and dissatisfaction amongst the guardians and general public. Adequate finance is lacking and the expansion of private high schools is taking place so rapidly because of local rivalry and other factors that it has been impossible to maintain a particular standard in each of these schools. As the resources of the State are very limited the ever growing number of new schools with demand for grant-in-aid is creating a very serious situation for the Directorate. The present tendency of educational expansion on the private sector is out of proportion to what is normally expected. This expansion has been mostly seen in the coastal areas of the State whereas private initiative in this respect is gradually rearing its head in the Agency tracts of the State also.

In the present administrative set-up and control, numerous diversities are seen. Primary education is under the control of the revenue officials in the Agency Tract of South Orissa. The district boards in North Orissa are not identical in composition, as the district council of Sambalpur has still the district officer as its president. Similarly, the Koraput board is officially controlled. These diversities in control and management are inherited from the past and continue even today. Institutions under private management are unsatisfactory. The poor financial position of the local authorities, their dependence on government for grants and the prevalent party politics in the local boards have done definite harm in achieving administrative efficiency in their institutions. They lack driving power in the executive, in supervision and there is reluctance on their part to bear the odium that attaches to fair taxation to augment educational finance.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

During the plan period developments in all spheres have been possible. During 1951-56, i.e., the first plan period the total expenditure on education (actuals) amounted to Rs. 1,37,51,346. It has gone up to Rs. 4,77,09,336 (actuals) during the year 1960-61.

This amount excludes expenditure on building projects executed by the Public Works Department. During the same planning period, institutional growth can be further seen. In the year 1951-52, there were only 20 colleges of all varieties, 183 high schools, 490 middle schools besides other institutions. In the year 1959 the total number of colleges rose to 31, that of high schools to 379 and that of middle schools to 943. The number of primary schools totalled 17,315 as against 9,297 in the year 1951-52. In the year 1959 in the total budgetary provision of more than 30 crores for the entire State the budget estimate on education came to 3,98,87,723, excluding expenditure on buildings which is no less substantial. Thus, the reconstruction of education has gone on satisfactorily in this State.

INTRODUCTION

The Punjab, the land of five rivers,¹ lost the significance of its name in 1947 as a result of its partition into two Punjabs. Predominantly Muslim areas with three rivers (Jhelum, Chenab and Ravi) were included in West Pakistan and the Eastern portion with two rivers (Beas and Sutlej) remained a part of India. In its historical perspective, the boundaries of the Punjab have altered substantially not in recent times alone but since times immemorial. By virtue of its geographical situation, it had to bear the full blast of the fury of many an invader, some of whom came for plundering its towns and city and some others came to settle in its fertile plains.

The earliest traces of civilization, as unearthed at Mohanjodaro and Harappa (in West Pakistan) and Rupar (in Present Punjab) bear traces of the Indus-Valley Civilization, supposed to have flourished in a period around 3,000 B.C. Subsequently the Dravidians, who came from the north and drove the aboriginals towards the east and south of India, lived here. About a thousand years later, Dravidians were driven east and south by the Aryans who prospered here for a long time. The Aryans were followed by Alexander the Great. Within seven years of his death, the last vestiges of the Greek dominions were washed off by Chandra Gupta Maurya, who was followed by Kushans in the Punjab. In the Maurya and the Kushan periods the boundaries of the Punjab extended beyond Hindukush. Shaken by the invasions of the Huns, the Punjab regained its glory under Harsha. In medieval times the Shahiya dynasty, built its empire upto Gazni and beyond. During the period of the Delhi Sultanate, its frontier was upto Peshawar. Its boundary more or less remained the same during the Mughul period. But under the Sikhs, Khyber Pass in the West and the Sutlej in the East formed its frontiers. On 30th March, 1849 Lord Dalhousie annexed the Punjab to the British dominions in India. After the famous Rising of 1857, Hariana Prant and Delhi were added to the Punjab. In 1901, Lord Curzon, the then Viceroy of India, separated from the Punjab the border districts beyond the Indus and formed a separate province of N.W.F.P. In 1912, Delhi also was

¹ In Persian "Panj" means "Five" and "Aab" means "Water".

made independent of the Punjab. The worst happened in 1947 when the central areas of the Punjab were cut off from it. Out of a total area of 99,474 square miles only 37,428 square miles were left with the Indian Punjab. The truncated State turned a new leaf in its history on November 1, 1956. In pursuance of the recommendations of the States Reorganisation Commission, Pepsu was integrated with the Punjab, thus making it a state having an area of 47,497 square miles.

Bounded on the west by Pakistan, on the north by Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Tibet and on the east by river Jamuna, the new State lies between $27\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and 34° . The population of the State, according to 1961 census, stands at 20,298,151 persons 10,866,910 males and 9,431,241 females. Of these, 20 per cent of the total population resides in towns. The remaining 80 per cent lives in villages. The Punjab is amongst the densely inhabited areas of India, the density of population working to 339.7 persons per square mile. About 66.5 per cent of the people are engaged in agriculture. The percentage of literacy in the State is 23.0; 32.4 for males and 13.7 for females.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

When the British took over the Punjab in 1849, they found three types of educational institutions existing in the State. The Hindus had *pathshalsas*, *tolis* and *lande* schools, the Sikhs had *Gurmukhi* schools and the Muslims ran *maktabs* and *madarsas*. The indigenous primary schools were found in almost all the 28,879 villages of the Punjab and could form a very good nucleus of education of the masses in 3, R's. The new rulers resolved to promote elementary vernacular education as well as to introduce English education. In pursuance of this policy a central school was established at Amritsar in 1851, its cost being met out of imperial revenues. The success of this school induced the district officers to start such schools in all the important towns of the State. Thus when the Department of Education was established in February, 1856 as a result of the Wood's Despatch of 1854, there were 32 such central schools.

The first director of public instruction, Lieutenant William Delafield Arnold, launched in May 1856, a scheme of an organised system of education, including improvement of indigenous schools, the establishment of a school at the centre of six villages, 30 *zilla* schools, 4 normal schools and a central college. The total educational budget was Rs. 3 lakhs out of which Rs. 15,000/- were to be spent on grant-in-aid to private schools. As a result of this scheme, within 4 years 60 *tehsildari* schools and 8 normal schools were established. The government went on expanding the facilities of education both for boys and girls. Along with the expansion in general education, provision was made for professional and vocational education. The first medical school, opened in 1860,

was raised to the status of a college in 1861. Education in law and engineering was provided in 1870, a school of art was set up in 1875 and a central training college for training secondary school teachers was established in Lahore in 1877.

ADMINISTRATION

In the beginning, the Department comprised one Director of Public Instruction and 2 European inspectors for the whole State. For matters of inspection and superintendence, they were helped by *tehsildars* until the year 1868. Since the *tehsildars* had no special training or experience of school supervision, they were apt to confuse hurried superficial progress with sound progress. The position was highly unsatisfactory and was, therefore, abandoned in that year and the district inspectors of schools began to be appointed in all the districts.

The development of education at all levels and of all types increased the work of supervision, control and administration. Besides appointing inspectors and inspectresses of schools in all the administrative divisions, in 1919 the Director of Public Instruction was also given an Assistant Director of Public Instruction. In order to help him in administering girls' education, a Deputy Directress was appointed in 1923.

From 1856 to 1860 the Director of Public Instruction corresponded with the Lieutenant-governor of the Punjab through the Financial Commissioner, but in 1860 he got the right of direct access to the Lieutenant-governor. When the province attained the status of a governor's province, the Director of Public Instruction also combined the post of the Education Secretary to the Government. Unlike many other provinces, the Director of Public Instruction enjoyed this double status from 1860 to 1957. In 1957 the two posts were separated and the secretaryship of education was vested in a person, belonging to the Indian Administrative Service. The Director of Public Instruction became the Deputy-Secretary-cum-Director of Public Instruction.

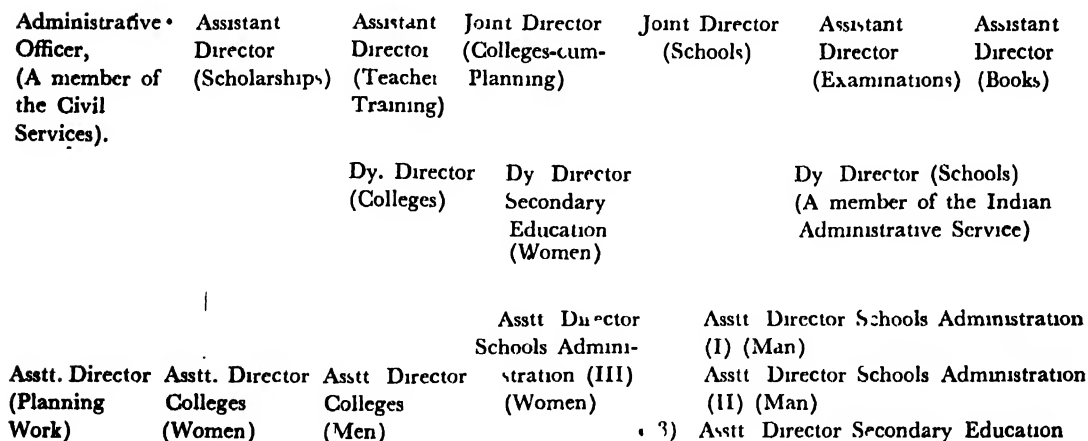
In 1958, however, there was a complete demarcation between the Administrative Department at the secretariat level and the Executive Department at the departmental level. The Director of Public Instruction no longer remained the Deputy Secretary. Another person from Civil Services was appointed as the Deputy Secretary of Education. The increase of work at the secretariat level resulted in the appointment of an Assistant Education Secretary also. In order to gear up the work to more efficient level and to co-ordinate the various branches of education, an Educational Commissioner-cum-Educational Secretary was appointed in the year 1960. This efficiency drive also brought in a change at the departmental level. Thinking that a person from the Indian Adminis-

trative service will deliver better goods, a member of the Indian Administrative Service was appointed as the Director of Public Instruction in January, 1961. But soon, however, it was felt that expert educational advice is of supreme importance for the development of education. In order to combine the administrative talent with expert educational advice, the Director of Public Instruction has been given two Joint Directors of Public Instruction, one for the schools and the other for colleges-cum-planning. In view of the great expansion and reconstruction of education, the headquarters staff at the Departmental level has been strengthened. The machinery at the headquarters, as it exists today, is given in the diagram below:

ORGANISATION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AT THE DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL SINCE

15.11.61

|
Director of Public Instruction
(A Member of Indian Administrative Service)



The Ministry of Education directs the activities of the Education Department. It is also answerable to the State Legislative Assembly. In order to secure public opinion on the broad policies of the Education Department, there is the Punjab Advisory Board of Education, consisting of eminent educationists and prominent public men interested in education. The Board can express its opinion and can ask questions on any issue of educational importance. Usually it meets once a year but a meeting can be called in

case of emergency. Broad policies regarding the nationalisation of text-books, framing of curriculum, grant-in-aid system, etc. are always decided in consultation with Punjab Advisory Board of Education.

Educational administration, hitherto considered as a specialised discipline, has now been partially placed under civil administrators. This is a step taken to ensure effective control and direction of education. The inclusion of I.A.S. and P.C.S. Officers has, however, raised a fundamental question in the research scholar's mind whether the educational administration be a field of educators or of civil servants or of both. The cynic, too, has yet to compromise himself to this new experiment of combining the civil and educational administrators for running the Education Department. This is a step which is considered sagacious in the context of the wider development of the State. Time alone, however, will show how this new experiment succeeds.

The partition of the Punjab found us in the midst of deserted fields, dilapidated houses and decapitated economy, faltering and groping for something to lean upon. The violent communal disturbances and the migration of the population paralysed the entire life in the State and education suffered the most. Thousands of uprooted teachers and students had to be rehabilitated. The whole education system had to be organised 'de novo'. But the invincible spirit of the Punjabis has enabled them to survive the turbulent times of 1947 and then aftermath.

Education in the Punjab since the dawn of independence may be stated to have three phases. Immediately after the partition, the Education Department was mainly concerned with rehabilitation and reconstruction. The second phase was concerned with the examination of the educational needs in the new social and political context. The third phase began with the First Five-Year Plan and is marked by broad expansion of educational facilities in the State. This is indicated by increase in the provision for education in the budget for the year 1961-62, which is more than 12 crores. The idea of the welfare state is being fulfilled as 25 per cent of the State budget is being spent on education. The twin processes of consolidation and expansion have led to a significant measure of achievement in the development of all aspects of education.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

When India became independent, there was a cry from every nook and corner of the State for more and more schools. The Education Department responded to this need of the people and a special drive was launched to open schools in villages which had a population of 500 or more. The object was that a primary school should be available to every village child at a distance of not more than one and a half miles from his home.

With the cooperation of the people in this drive, we have now 12,679 primary schools in the State as against 2,429 in 1947. In 1948, the State Government decided to extend the duration of the primary course for boys from 4 to 5 years. The process of conversion started immediately and a vast majority of primary schools are now 5-year institutions.

To meet the requirements of citizenship in a democratic society, the old and hackneyed syllabus for primary and middle classes was basically overhauled in 1950. In the new syllabus, greater emphasis is now laid on health, social and recreational activities. With the revision of the syllabus, difficulty arose regarding the low calibre of the teachers working in the primary schools. Many of them did not possess knowledge and ability to teach certain important subjects included in the syllabus particularly crafts, general science and social studies. It was thought desirable that a teacher for elementary classes should at least be a first or second class matriculate and trained for two years, so as to enable him to learn not only pedagogical subjects but also master the contents of all the subjects that he is to teach in the school. Accordingly the minimum qualifications for admission into junior Basic training schools have now been raised to at least a pass in second division in the Matriculation Examination and the period of training has been increased to two years. The training includes instruction in pedagogical subjects as well as in the contents of different subjects. Keeping in view the enhanced qualifications of a primary school teacher, his pay scale has also been revised to a satisfactory extent.

In order to meet the educational needs of sparsely populated areas, the Government have been encouraging the opening of single-teacher schools. At present there are 4,702 such schools. Whatever may be the reason for the growth or survival of these schools, there is no gainsaying the fact that they continue to make a definite contribution to the eradication of illiteracy, and to the expansion and popularity of education in backward and needy tracts of the State. Efforts at the same time are being made, under a phased programme, to convert them into double-teacher schools.

Free and compulsory primary education is no longer a vision or a dream but a reality. The Compulsory Primary Education Act was passed in 1960 and it was enforced from 1st April, 1961. The enrolment in the first primary class has been highly encouraging. If the phased programme works according to the expectation, more than 80 per cent children of 6-11 age-group would be in the schools before the third plan period.

In the process of reconstructing our educational system after independence, introduction of Basic education in the State has become the nucleus of our elementary education. During the last decade, 770 new Basic schools have been opened and 332 schools have

been converted into the Basic pattern. Although it cannot be said with confidence whether the Basic system of education has its roots perpetuated in the State or not and whether the public in general has been convinced about its effectiveness or not, yet it can be said that after a long period of doubt and misgiving Basic education is now coming into its own. A dynamic drive for the spread of Basic education will take into stride every village, which is no longer the back-wash of life in the State.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education, which was once regarded as the privilege of the few, has become the birthright of many. The progress of secondary education has been phenomenal. The number of high schools, higher secondary schools and middle schools today is 1,168, 174 and 1,363 respectively as against 255 high schools and 981 middle schools in 1946-47. This increase is registered both in case of secondary schools for boys as well as girls. The number of pupils under instruction are at present 7,07,451 boys and 2,15,543 girls as against 2,74,017 boys and 23,153 girls in 1947.

The secondary schools are evenly distributed in the State, except in the districts of Kangra and Hissar. Schools in border areas have been admitted to special grant-in-aid and conditions of recognition in their case have been relaxed. With regard to distribution of schools according to their managements, the number of secondary schools managed by Government is 1,862 and the number of secondary schools managed by private managing bodies is 843. In the secondary schools of urban areas the size of the classes is generally unmanageable. The enrolment of 60 to 70 pupils per class is a common feature. The finances of the State, having several claims of beneficent nature, have not enabled us to undertake any programme of erecting and extending school buildings. Overcrowding in schools is responsible for the falling standards of attainment.

Simultaneous with quantitative expansion, qualitative improvement has also engaged the serious attention of the Government. In pursuance of the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission, secondary education in the State has been completely reconstructed. Diversified curricula, to suit the varying abilities and aptitudes of children have been introduced. The secondary schools are being gradually converted into eleven-year higher secondary multipurpose schools. To implement this programme of converting high schools into multipurpose higher secondary schools, a sum of Rs. 239.32 lacs was provided in the Second Five-Year Plan. Up to date 174 high schools have been converted to the new pattern. The target laid down in the Third Plan is to convert 50 per cent of the existing high schools into higher secondary schools, although available resources

and the paucity of properly trained personnel (especially to man technical, commercial, home science and fine arts groups) daunt us in our resolve.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

With the partition of the Punjab, the only university situated in Lahore which served the whole of the undivided Punjab, N.W.F.P., Jammu and Kashmir and British Baluchistan was left over in the West Pakistan. University education on our side of the Punjab would have come to a standstill if an ordinance of the Punjab Government in 1947 had not brought the present Punjab University into existence. Unlike other Indian Universities, the Punjab University, therefore, came into existence not as a result of any pre-thought or preplanning but as a child of partition. Due to the great perseverance of its pilots this child of partition has grown, during the last 14 years, into a full-fledged adult, maintaining very high standards of research and scholarship and discharging efficiently the requirements of a full-fledged examining, affiliating and teaching university, with a very large number of candidates appearing in its various examinations.

- The number of affiliated colleges has risen from 53 in 1947 to 142 now. While in 1947-48 the number of students attending the various arts, science, professional and technical colleges and departments was 25,376, now it is 66,157. This itself is a sufficient testimony that higher education in the State has been expanding at a rapid pace.

In the year 1955, the University found its home in Chandigarh. With the help of the University Grants Commission and the State Government, it has built its own spacious buildings including laboratories, teaching departments, hostels, and residential quarters for its staff. The university campus, extending over 300 acres of land in the clean and picturesque environment of Chandigarh, is a great inspiration to its alumni. Despite handicaps and limitations every effort has been made that the university teaching departments should not lag behind in promoting scholarship and research. During the last 14 years, 4 students have obtained D.Sc. and 105 Ph.D. Degrees. At present 208 students are carrying on research in the different faculties. This is a record which does not compare unfavourably with that of other Indian universities, which have been working for a much longer period and have not passed through the vicissitudes through which Punjab University has passed.

Increasingly recognising the importance of modern evaluation technique, the University has launched a programme of introducing progressively the system of internal assessment. Before long a cumulative record for each student will be maintained in the colleges. To rationalise examination further, the university proposes to set up an examination research

unit. With the switching over of 10 years high schools to 11 years pattern, it became necessary that colleges should switch over to a three-year degree course. Accordingly, necessary steps have been completed this year. The Government has quite recently established another university in Patiala. It is known as the 'Panjabi University.'

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES OF EDUCATION

TECHNICAL EDUCATION — Although greatly needed and much in demand, facilities for technical education in the undivided Punjab were meagre. Quantitative shortage apart, there was also qualitative inadequacy in the field of technical and professional education. And then even those meagre facilities were concentrated in the area now included in the West Pakistan. Except one medical college at Amritsar and a few industrial schools, all the technical and professional institutions of agriculture, engineering, veterinary science, law, medicine, commerce and training of teachers were lost to West Pakistan. In a way technical and professional education in the truncated State had to be organised "*ab initio*".

With the dawn of independence, it was immensely recognised that the progress and well-being of the country depended upon the development of industry, commerce, transport, communication, agriculture, public health, etc. For all these fields, scientists, engineers and technologists were required.

Professional and technical education has been organised at two levels — the school level and the graduate level. At the former level there are four types of schools — medical, technical, industrial and engineering, and teacher education. At the graduate level there are 42 colleges for professional education including 5 for women exclusively. These colleges cater for teacher education, law, medicine, engineering, agriculture, commerce, physical education, veterinary science and animal husbandry, pharmacology, geology and dairying. Except one engineering institut and a few teacher training colleges, all other technical and professional colleges are run either by the government or by the university. Although there is a demand for increasing the number of seats available in professional and technical colleges, yet the State being small the intake so far is considered sufficient for its needs. All that is required is qualitative improvement and that is being emphasised by the research-work carried out in these institutions.

The cry of modern education is "coordination of education" but the professional and technical education being under the control of many departments creates an anomalous position. Again, there is no coordination between the employers of workers and the producers of these workers. The industrialist has not joined hands with the educationist. Without such cooperation it was not possible to evolve an integrated scheme

for technical education. In 1953 a Board of Technical Education, with the express aim of coordinating the activities of the various departments concerned with imparting technical education and to maintain a satisfactory standard of syllabi in the State, was set up.

SOCIAL EDUCATION.—On the advent of independence, the foundations of social education in the State were not quite strong. Although efforts in this direction had started in the twenties of the present century, but not much headway was made by 1947.

Under the directive of the Government of India, social education was organised "*de novo*" in 1949. One Class I officer was appointed to organise the work. Four social education training camps for teachers and volunteers were organised and 134 social education centres including 28 for women were started in 1950. These centres were supplied with radio sets, petromax lamps, carpets, blackboards, stools, reading and writing material and library books. Whole-time social education teachers and volunteers were appointed to produce among the masses consciousness of their rights and duties to the State, to work for their economic betterment and to impart them literacy. Social education programme became comprehensive, embracing literacy, civic education, health education, education for communal harmony, recreational and cultural activities, training in simple crafts, general knowledge and every-day science. Two mobile cinema units with films were purchased and a Social Education Sub-committee was set up under the auspices of the Provincial Advisory Board of Education. Steps were taken to secure the co-operation of the Health, Cooperative and Publicity Departments in the districts to make social education centres the focal point of all social reconstruction work.

With the expansion of social education work, the strength of the workers in the field has been augmented. There are social education supervisors in each administrative division to control and guide the work of the social education centres. The budget for social education has been mounting every year and is shared by the Central Government, the State Government and the Municipal Committee in the ratio of 2:1:1.

The progress of social education has been quite satisfactory, though not commensurate with the needs of the State and the efforts put in. There are 914 social education centres spread over the State. The number of adults in centres for men is 11,239 and in those for women 14,992.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION.—The importance of the pre-primary education dealing with children of 3 to 5 years of age cannot be denied but this has not received the share of attention it deserves. It is partly due to the fact that the Government have remained pre-occupied with the reorganisation of the primary, secondary and higher education in the State but mainly due to the limitations of finances and lack of trained personnel.

The nature and guidance of the baby and the toddler in the State are left largely to the home and there are no proper child-care centres and nursery education centres as in some of the western countries. There are, however, nursery schools and nursery classes attached to institutions. Some of the private progressive schools have kindergarten classes attached to them. While they include games, educational plays, recitations and excursions, there is no provision in them for meals and sleep at definite hours. Most of these have become stereo-typed and follow a fixed daily routine which consists of clocked-off periods into which all the activities of the day are pigeon-holed by the teacher.

So far only rich parents have been alive to the need for pre-school education, perhaps because they alone can afford it, perhaps because their children have no companion at home, may be, they regard them a nuisance at home. But with the growing awareness and the spread of education, the demand is bound to increase and already there is a persistent demand for the opening of nursery, kindergarten and Montessori schools in the big towns. The existence of a facility also promotes demand. Now that the experience gathered in the field of nursery school organisation is available to government for further expansion of this very essential ingredient of progressive education, generous provision for well-equipped nursery classes and school is needed. To lay the foundation of sound education, we must start the nursery schools and not neglect the crucial period of the child's life.

FINANCE

In spite of its post-partition problems, the State has been steadily increasing its allocation for education during the last 14 years. While the budget provision of the Education Department was Rs. 147 lacs in 1947-48, it is more than 12 crores in 1961-62. To meet the difficulties created by partition, liberal special grants were made to the Punjab by the Central Government to set up the new university, to rehabilitate educational institutions and to finance the new schemes under "reconstructionist movement". In 1951 ushered in the era of planning. During the first period (1951 to 1956), a sum of Rs. 407.56 lacs was spent on education. The State's financial allocation for education in the Second Five-Year Plan was Rs. 1,232.56 lacs. Allocations for educational schemes in the Third Plan have been slashed as a result of a big reduction in the overall outlay. As against Rs. 44 crores earlier fixed for education, the State will now get Rs. 20 crores. On this figure, the Education Department has based its future programme. The cut has affected two of the State's ambitious projects. First, it will not be possible to have universal primary education, as contemplated earlier, but the State will have to be content with providing for only 80 per cent of the children of the school going age, as against 73 per cent now. Secondly, free education facilities in government institutions will have to be stopped at the eighth class, though the government is loosely committed to extend remission upto the matric stage.

The Planning Commission's views that provision of free education does not entail any fresh expenditure but only dries up one of the sources of income. This is thus not considered a fit case for Central aid. Therefore, the allocation for primary education has been reduced from Rs. 14 crores to Rs. 8 crores. Secondary education has been allocated Rs. 6 crores and university education Rs. 4.5 crores.

The Punjab Government is determined to expand and improve educational facilities at all levels as rapidly as possible. Every effort is being made to implement the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission and the University Education Commission. The government is conscious of the fundamental rights in the Constitution of India granting to every citizen free and compulsory education up to the age of 14 years. So far as the government schools are concerned, this fundamental right has been fully vindicated by making education free up to middle standard for boys and upto IX Class for girls. Very soon the government will launch upon subsidising the private institutions to the extent of enabling them to make education free in their institutions at par with government institutions.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

It will be no exaggeration to say that progress and expansion of education, especially at the secondary and college stages is entirely due to the enthusiastic and missionary spirit of voluntary agencies like the Anjuman-Himayat Islam (in the undivided Punjab), Christian missions, Arya Samaj, Sanatan Dharma Sabha, Chief Khalsa Diwan, Dev Samaj, etc. The government adopted the system of grant-in-aid to encourage private enterprise with the inception of the Department of Education in 1856. The object of the grant was not "to increase or perpetuate the helplessness of the people," but, "to encourage and foster any rudiments of incidental exertion of public spirit." The government envisaged a time when all institutions of higher order would be managed by private enterprise, under the control of, and aided by the State. When the Punjab was partitioned there were 446 recognised secondary schools, besides several colleges, managed by voluntary agencies. Of these, the Indian Punjab had 224 schools. Since the present Punjab is mostly inhabited by the refugees, the sources of private philanthropy have been seriously reduced. With the help of the government, however, several uprooted private schools and colleges of the West Punjab, have been rehabilitated. There are now 86 colleges and 843 high and higher secondary schools run by private bodies.

Recently, a movement for nationalising the private schools is afoot. About 100 such schools, which could not pull their weight, have been nationalised. Many others, which

have lean finances, are looking forward to the day when the government will come to their rescue

PROVINCIALISATION OF LOCAL BODY SCHOOLS

As early as in 1886, the government decided to withdraw from the direct management of schools and all the schools, except four, were transferred to the management of local bodies. The policy of localisation of education did not work satisfactorily, because the local bodies did not run the schools efficiently. They were dilatory in supplying the needs of the schools. Accommodation in the majority of the schools was inadequate. Supply of furniture and appliances received insufficient attention. The advice of inspecting officers was frequently set aside. The members of the boards were chiefly concerned with finding posts for their relatives irrespective of their qualifications. They appointed untrained teachers because they accept smaller salaries. The standard of instruction was, therefore, very low. The local bodies never spent the required sum and this was a constant source of friction between the Department and the local bodies. While the Education Department complained that the local bodies failed to discharge their duties towards education, the local bodies constantly expressed the grievance that their finances did not permit them to undertake any comprehensive scheme for education. After giving trial to this localization for more than three quarters of a century, about 11,600 schools run by the local bodies were provincialised from 1st October, 1957.

CONCLUSION

At the dawn of freedom the Punjab faced a crisis—cultural, social, economic and educational. The partition in 1947 brought in its wake colossal problems, which were frightfully difficult to solve. But with courage and determination, we are on our feet once again and stand favourably against any other state in India. Rather, Punjab is one of the leading states in India in the matter of educational progress and reforms. There is a great awakening among the masses and there is a wide-spread demand from all quarters for education. Now we have more students than we can accommodate. The two-fold ambition of educational policy of the state government after partition has been (1) to provide education to all, and (2) to make education better suited to our needs. Regarding education for all, though it has not been possible to provide schooling to all children of 6 to 11 years age, the goal of universal and free compulsory education is within sight. In the field of secondary education, the unilateral and the mono-track system of secondary education is being gradually replaced by multipurpose education. There has been a great increase in the number of institutions in the State providing

university education. The progress of professional and technical education has kept pace with the needs and requirements of the State both in variety and volume. While primary education has been given sufficient attention, negligible arrangements have been made for the pre-primary stage. In order to march abreast with other nations of the civilized world, time, money and attention will have to be devoted in this direction.

By provincialising local body schools numbering 11,000, the State has taken upon itself a burden of Rs. 550 lakhs annually. The step has been taken to improve the standard of education and the status of teachers in such schools. The results of such a centralisation have yet to be seen. The private sector has played a laudable role in spreading and popularising education. In the field of secondary and higher education, their contribution is in no way less than that of the government. But since the State is mostly inhabited by the refugees from Pakistan and sources of private philanthropy have been seriously reduced as an after-math of partition, some of the voluntary organisations are clamouring for nationalisation of their schools.

• In the ultimate analysis, the teachers form the most vital part of an educational organisation. Their needs have not been over-looked. They are being helped to retrieve their lost position. Their salaries have been improved. They have now greater opportunities to improve their professional knowledge. For them holiday-homes have been established at beautiful hill resorts.

We have acquired a new outlook, more consistent with and better suited to our present-day national requirements and we are trying to evolve a suitable pattern of education. In conclusion we can say that if the peaks and uplands have not been achieved, they have been clearly glimpsed.

RAJASTHAN

SRI P. L. SHRIMALI

THE BACKGROUND

The unified State of Rajasthan came into existence in 1949. Prior to the merger, this region comprised princely states and the Union Territories of Ajmer and Merwara which were under the direct rule of the then British government.

Rajasthan is one of the biggest and sparsely populated states of India. It is spread over an area of 1,32,150 sq. miles and has a population of 2,01,46,173¹. About 80 per cent of the total population lives in rural areas. The scheduled tribes and other backward classes form the major portion of the population (about 83,00,000).

Prior to the merger, the various princely states had their separate departments of education. The merger led to the integration of these departments of education and the formation of a unified department for the entire State of Rajasthan.

The integration of the departments of education was a smooth affair at the academic plane. The University of Rajasthan had already come into existence in 1946 and it was already exercising academic control over high schools and colleges of the entire region. The integration of the administration presented a relatively complicated picture as the administrative set-up and the salary grade structures varied considerably in the different princely states. The government unified the administrative set-up in December 1949. The Education Code of Rajasthan was published in 1957.

The integration presented a variety of problems. Teachers and inspecting officers had to be fixed in the new set-up and a seniority list had to be prepared. It took some time and hence an element of suspense and uncertainty was created in their minds. There were difficulties in matters of organisation, inspection and supervision. These difficulties were further aggravated on account of the vast area of the State, long distances to be covered, inadequate means of communication, insufficiency of competent and experienced administrative and ministerial staff, and the want of statistical and other basic information about education.

¹ 1961 Census

The birth pangs of the integrated Department of Education are almost over and regular administration is now in operation. The Department has been bearing heavy responsibilities of development programmes since the launching of the First Five-Year Plan. The nature of developmental responsibilities that the Department has been bearing becomes evident from the increase of institutions during 1951-1960.

TABLE 72

Development of Education in Rajasthan, 1951-1960

Type	Institutions	
	1951	1960
Primary Schools	3,959	14,490
Middle Schools	655	1,380
Secondary Schools	147	525
Colleges	30	99
Other Institutions	130	1,821
Total	4,821	18,315

The number of institutions has roughly increased four times during this period. The expenditure on education has gone up roughly by ten times during the past eleven years (1949-50 to 1960-61), the student enrolment has been almost doubled — from 4,29,409 (1950-51) to 11,30,502 (1958-59).

At the same time, as compared with other states, the Government of Rajasthan has to shoulder a great responsibility in the administration of education. While in the majority of Indian states private enterprise plays an important role, in Rajasthan there are hardly any private educational institutions. Thus education is mainly a state venture in Rajasthan.

ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCIES

INTRODUCTION. — The following administrative agencies are in operation in the field of education in the State:

1. The Ministry of Education;
2. The University of Rajasthan;
3. The Board of Secondary Education, Rajasthan;
4. The Department of Education; and
5. The *panchayat samitis*.

THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION. — The Minister of Education is at the head of education in the State. He controls both colleges and schools through the Secretary to the Government of Rajasthan, Department of Education. He is also the Chairman of the State Advisory Board of Education and a member of the Senate of the University of Rajasthan.

THE UNIVERSITY OF RAJASTHAN — The University Act provides for the following officers: (1) the chancellor, (2) the vice-chancellor, (3) the registrar, (4) the deans of faculties, (5) university librarian, and (5) such other persons in the service of the university as may be declared by the statutes to be officers of the university.

The Governor of Rajasthan is the chancellor of the university and is by virtue of his office the head of the university. The vice-chancellor is the principal executive and academic officer of the university. The vice-chancellor is appointed by the chancellor in the following manner:

A committee of three persons, two of whom shall be persons not connected with the university or any affiliated college, or approved institution, nominated by the syndicate and one person nominated by the chancellor, who shall also appoint one of the three as the chairman of the committee, shall select not less than three persons and shall report its selection to the syndicate. The syndicate shall make its recommendations on the persons so selected to the chancellor who shall appoint one of such persons as the vice-chancellor.

The academic council exercises control over academic matters and is responsible for the maintenance of the standards of teaching and examination within the University and consists of the following persons: (1) the vice-chancellor, (2) deans of faculties, (3) heads of university departments who should be of the status of a professor or a reader, (4) the conveners of boards of studies, and (5) five persons, co-opted by the academic council and who should possess special attainments in particular studies and who are not teachers in the University or any affiliated college or approved institutions.

The university consists of the following faculties, viz., (1) arts, (2) science, (3) commerce, (4) law, (5) medicine and pharmacutics, (6) engineering and technology, (7) oriental learning including *ayurvedic* medicines, (8) education, (9) agriculture and forestry, (10) women's education, (11) music and fine arts, and such other faculties as may be prescribed by the statutes.

RELATION BETWEEN THE UNIVERSITY AND THE STATE GOVERNMENT — The University Act provides for a close collaboration between the state government and the university bodies. As already mentioned above, the Act provides for the Minister of Education in Rajasthan and other related heads of six major government departments to be ex-

officio members of the senate. In addition to this, the state government can nominate persons not exceeding five to seven as members of the senate. The vice-chancellor of the University of Rajasthan is also a member of the State Advisory Board of Education.

The state government provides the major share of the university finances but there is no tendency on its part to exercise control over the university. There is no government nominee on the syndicate, which is the executive body of the university. Thus the university is more or less an autonomous body. It has also been the policy of the state government to hand over the post-graduate teaching under its administration to the university.

THE BOARD OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. — Secondary education in Rajasthan is controlled by two agencies: (1) the Board of Secondary Education exercising academic control, and (2) the Department of Education having the administrative control.

The Board of Secondary Education was established by the state government in 1957 by passing the Rajasthan Secondary Education Act, 1957. The board consists of the following four categories of members:

1. *Ex-officio Members*

- (1) The Director of Education, Rajasthan;
- (2) The Director of Technical Education, Rajasthan;
- (3) The Head of the Commerce and Industries Department of the State Government; and
- (4) The Circle Commander, National Cadet Corps, Rajasthan Battalion.

2. *Elected members*

There are six elected members, out of which five are elected by the Senate of the University of Rajasthan and one by the Executive Council of the State Teachers' Association.

3. *Nominated Members* (thirteen in number to be nominated by the state government): Of these, four are to be principals of technical or professional colleges; one an expert in physical education, one representing inspecting officers of the Education Department, six persons representing the heads of recognised institutions in the State (of whom at least two shall be the heads of girls' institutions and two the heads of private institutions), and one person considered by the state government fit and necessary to represent such interests as are not otherwise adequately represented.

4. *Co-opted members* (two distinguished educationists).

The following are the officers of the board: (1) chairman, (2) vice-chairman, (3) secretary, and (4) such other officers as may be declared by regulations to be the officers of the board.

Except for a period not exceeding three years from the date of the constitution of the first board, the Director of Education, Rajasthan, shall be the chairman of the board. The vice-chairman is elected by the board from amongst its members. The secretary is appointed by the state government on such conditions and for such period as the state government may deem fit.

The board exercises academic control over all secondary schools in Rajasthan. The constitution of the board makes it a state dominated institution. Out of the total strength of twenty-five, seventeen members are either state servants or are government nominees. The chairman of the board is also a state servant and the secretary is appointed by the government.

The Act provides for the representation of engineering, medical, agriculture, veterinary education institutions on the board. But institutions of teacher education, whose work is internally related to secondary schools, do not find any representation on the board. The state government does not seem to have recognised the integral relationship between teacher education institutions and secondary schools. This is likely to have an adverse effect on both the types of institutions. The constitution of the board is, however, being revised.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION — The Department of Education has the following four directors (1) the Director of Collegiate Education, (2) the Director of Primary and Secondary Education, (3) the Director of Technical Education, and (4) the Director of Sanskrit Education. All the four directors of education are independent and correspond with the Education Secretary directly. They hold general charge of all educational institutions in their respective fields.

For the purpose of the administration of primary and secondary education, the whole State is divided into five ranges, each under the charge of a deputy director of education. He holds general charge of primary, middle and high schools, and is also in special charge of special schools and higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges. Each range is further divided into three districts, and each district is under the charge of an inspector of schools. He is assisted by deputy inspectors and sub-deputy inspectors. For the administration of women's education, there are 12 range assistant directors of education (women) who are assisted by 8 deputy inspectresses and 13 sub-deputy inspectresses of girls' schools.

In addition to range deputy directors, there are two additional deputy directors attached to the central office. One of these officers is in charge of Basic education and the other of social education. The Deputy Director of Basic Education has the overall

responsibility of the planning and expansion of Basic education and the training of teachers for Basic schools. He has no separate administrative staff under him. He works through the range and district officers.

The Deputy Director of Social Education is in charge of the social education programme for the entire State and is assisted by one assistant director of social education, fourteen district social education organisers, and block social education organisers (two for each block). The schedule showing the delegation of financial powers and powers under service rules to the officers of the Education Department is given in the following table:

TABLE 73

The Schedule Showing Delegation of Financial Powers under Service Rules to the Officers of the Education Department, Rajasthan*

S. N.	Nature of Power	To Whom Delegated	Extent of Delegation
1.	Powers to grant leave other than study leave	Director of Education Dy. Director of Education Asstt. Director of Ed. (Women) Inspectors and Dy. Inspectors Inspectors incharge Districts Dy. Inspector of Schools Heads of Inter Colleges Heads of High, Training & Multipurpose Schools Librarians (A class libraries)	Upto powers of appointment Upto powers of appointment of Assistant teachers in untrained grade. Upto powers of appointment Asst. Teachers in Inter grade and Lower Division clerks. Upto powers of appointment and Asstt. Teachers in Inter grade Upto powers of appointment and Asstt. Teachers in Matric grade Upto powers of appointment Upto powers of appointment Upto powers of appointment Full powers
2.	Reparis to buildings, maintenance, of which is entrusted to the Department	Director of Education Dy. Director of Edn. Asstt. Director of Ed. (Women) Inspectors and Dy. Inspectors Incharge Districts Dy. Inspector of Schools	Upto Rs. 2,000/- Upto Rs. 500/- Upto Rs. 500/- Upto Rs. 50/-
3.	Purchase of Stores	Director of Education Dy. Director of Education Asstt. Director of Education (Women) Inspectors and Dy. Inspectors Incharge Districts Dy. Inspector of Schools Heads of Inter Colleges Heads of High, Training & Multipurpose Schools Librarians of 'A' class Libraries	Upto Rs. 20,000/- Upto Rs. 5,000/- Upto Rs. 2,000/- Upto Rs. 500/- Upto Rs. 2,000/- Upto Rs. 500/- Upto Rs. 100/-

S. N.	Nature of power	To Whom Delegated	Extent of Delegation
4.	Writing off losses of property	Director of Education Dy. Director of Education Assistant Director of Education (Women) Inspector and Dy. Inspector of Schools Incharge Districts. Dy. Inspector of Schools Heads of Inter colleges Heads of High, Training & Multipurpose Schools Librarians of 'A' class Libraries	Upto Rs. 500 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 10,000/- in a year Upto Rs. 200/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 2,000/- in a year Upto Rs. 100 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 1,000/- in a year. Upto Rs. 50/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 500/- in a year to the Inspectors and upto Rs. 25 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year to the Dy. Inspectors Incharge Districts. Upto Rs. 25 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year. Upto Rs. 50 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 500 in a year. Upto Rs. 25 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year. Upto Rs. 25 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year.
5.	Auction of unserviceable write off their costs	Director of Education Dy. Director of Education Assistant Director of Education (Women) Inspector and Dy. Inspectors Incharge Districts Dy. Inspectors of Schools Heads of Inter Colleges Heads of High, Training and Multipurpose Schools Librarians of 'A' class libraries.	Upto Rs. 500/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 10,000/- in a year Upto Rs. 200/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 2,000/- in a year. Upto Rs. 100 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 1000/- in a year. Upto Rs. 50/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 500/- in a year to the Inspectors, and upto Rs. 25/- in each case subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year to the Dy. Inspectors Incharge Districts. Upto Rs. 25 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year. Upto Rs. 50 in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 500/- in a year. Upto Rs. 25/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year. Upto Rs. 25/- in each case, subject to a limit of Rs. 250/- in a year.

* According to the *Educational Code of Rajasthan, 1957.*

THE PANCHAYAT SAMITIS. - The *panchayat samitis* have come into being as a result of the enactment of the Panchayat Samitis and Zilla Panchayat Act, 1951. The Act provides for the transfer of functions formerly discharged by various government departments to local communities. The *panchayat samitis* consist of the *sarpanches* of the village *panchayats* in the area. The representatives of special interests like scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, women, etc. are taken by co-option and nomination. The *samitis* carry on their day-to-day work through standing committees constituted for different purposes. The following items from the education sector have been handed over to the *panchayat samitis*:

1. Primary schools including schools run for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes by the Social Welfare Department;
2. Conversion of primary schools into the Basic pattern;
3. Scholarships and stipends to members of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes;
4. Establishment of information, community and recreation centres;
5. Establishment of youth organisations;
6. Establishment of rural libraries; and
7. Adult centres.

The Department of Education has handed over the entire budget of primary schools to the *panchayat samitis*. This amount will be given as grants-in-aid in perpetuity in future. The Department would also provide funds for the opening of new schools according to a plan. It may be noted that the Department of Education, however, exercises general academic control over the schools handed over to the *samitis*. It also prescribes courses and text-books for the *panchayat* schools.

The decentralisation of primary education is likely to make the local communities more responsible for expanding and improving this important branch of education. It is expected that more public co-operation will come forth in the form of buildings, material and equipment, and that every *panchayat* school will gradually become a powerful agency for improving the rural community.

This devolution of control of primary education has also created new problems for teachers. The *samitis* have no tradition of administration and some of their members interfere in the normal working of the schools and tend to boss over teachers. And thus the teachers in some *panchayat samitis* have to adjust themselves to many masters. This is, however, a very difficult task. It is also seen that some *panchayat samitis* coerce teachers to organise a number of community services and this reduces them to mere multipurpose workers. Thus the normal working of schools suffers, because a multipurpose worker cannot be an effective teacher.

FUNCTIONING OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

INTRODUCTION. — A fruitful approach to the study of educational administration is to study the administrative set-up in operation in terms of the objectives of educational administration.

Though the Department of Education has not defined the objectives of educational administration in the State as such, yet they are reflected in the Educational Code of

Rajasthan (1957) and other Acts of the government. An effort has been made below to list some of the important objectives of educational administration and examine the functioning of the administrative set-up in relation to the objectives.

DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER AND PERSONALITY — The Code lays down that the educational programme should be geared to the development of pupils' character and personality and every opportunity should be taken to impress on managers, teachers and pupils the inexpediency and danger of sacrificing intellectual, manual, physical and moral training to the mere acquisition of book knowledge. There is also the emphasis on relating educational programmes to the needs and capacities of pupils.

A fundamental objective of this nature can serve as a guiding principle and it has to be a long and continuous process of reorganising the educational system with a view to realising the objectives. It would require new-type of teachers and inspecting officers, who would be devoted to this concept of education and would be willing to evolve a suitable organisation, curriculum and methodology for the purpose of giving effect to it. There has not been much preparation for the training of such teachers and inspecting officers.

The emphasis on co-curricular activities in schools has increased considerably during the last decade and it is being felt that the pendulum is swinging towards the other extreme. The increased emphasis on co-curricular activities does indicate interest in promoting games and social activities but does not give clear indication from the point of view of the consciousness of the value of the activities for developing character and total personality of the child.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRATIC WAY OF LIFE — The Code emphasizes that the organization of the curriculum and the programme of activities in schools should be so planned as to provide adequate training for a democratic way of life. A step taken in this regard is the introduction of the students' parliament in schools under which students meet and discuss problems. In order to have the full impact of this objective on the educational organisation in the State, it would be necessary to examine how the organisation of the educational system, the curricular and co-curricular activities should be reorganised with a view to providing training for a democratic way of life. Such a study has still to be planned.

FOSTERING OF DEMOCRATIC ATTITUDES IN TEACHERS — An important factor involved in evolving a programme of education for democratic way of life is the attitude of the teacher. The essence of education for democratic way of life lies in providing a democratic social

atmosphere. This could be possible only if the teacher exercises his authority in a democratic manner and provides opportunity to the students to act in a democratic way. It is not easy to find such teachers in such large numbers as required by the State. The change over from the feudal order to the democratic social order in this State is a very recent phenomenon and it is no wonder that society does not foster the democratic type of personality.

The Department of Education has to face this problem of working out the programme of education for a democratic way of life with teachers and inspectors who have not had the satisfaction of entering into democratic relationship with other persons and who have not deeply cherished democratic values in their own life. The Department could, perhaps, improve its personnel from this point of view to some extent by giving more preference to the democratic type of personality while recruiting teachers and inspectors. The scope of making this type of selection is very much limited in the field of primary and secondary education, where it is most needed. The rapid expansion of educational facilities in this field creates more jobs than can be filled by suitable workers, and hence recruitment has to be done without much selection.

The Department of Education has to accept this position of filling up posts with whatever personnel is available irrespective of qualities and capacities of persons to foster the democratic way of life. This situation is likely to continue for a considerable period and the Department will have to find out other remedies.

The institutions of teacher education could perhaps make some contribution by providing experiences of democratic living to teachers under training. The institutions are at present mostly concerned with imparting skills of classroom teaching and this objective does not receive much importance. It would be necessary to reorganise the working of teacher education institutions with a view to emphasizing the importance of education in democratic living.

The Department of Education could also make significant contributions in fostering democratic attitude among teachers by organising the administrative pattern on democratic basis. An important quality of the democratic administration is that responsibility is pushed further down the line and everybody has the opportunity of making his contribution in formulating educational policies and programmes in his own sphere and that everybody feels that he can take action in his own sphere with a view to improving efficiency. He should also have the confidence that the action taken by him will be respected by his seniors. "Delegation of responsibility should not be a sham paper transaction but something real."

In the field of university education and secondary education, the constitution of different statutory bodies provides an opportunity to some teachers to share the responsibility of formulating policies and programmes. In other fields, there is no definite and explicit basis of participating in this experience with workers working in the field. The Department could foster democratic attitude among teachers by providing them an experience of sharing responsibility in formulating policies and programmes.

The scheme of democratic decentralization of administration reveals the democratic approach of the State in the field of administration of developmental programmes, but the democratic approach is not carried to its logical consequence in the general administrative pattern. The school teachers have very little initiative in matters of curriculum planning and selection of text-books. The Department of Education prescribes the syllabus and text-books and schools are required to use only the approved text-books. Though it has been laid down in the Code, that it is the policy of the government to encourage experiments in curriculum planning, and institutions will, with the approval of the Department, be free to adopt special courses of studies, but in practice the Department has not been able to promote the approach of experimentation and the courses and text-books prescribed by the Department are in use everywhere. The State develops vested interest when the text-books are nationalized and the experimental approach recedes into the background. The State of Rajasthan has followed the course of nationalization of text-books and there is no opportunity for the schools to exercise their judgment in the matter of planning their curriculum or in the selection of text-book for students. The tendency towards centralization in educational administration is also revealed in the policy of government requiring the schools to purchase books and teaching aids out of the list notified by the Department. The schools thus suffer from the loss of initiative and to that extent the teachers are likely to have less faith in the democratic way of life.

The Department of Education has to address itself to the problem of evolving an administrative set-up, in which responsibility would be shared at all levels and every teacher would have an opportunity to make his maximum contribution in developing the educational programme.

Sharing of responsibility by teachers becomes much more effective, if there are suitable professional organisations as they provide a forum for teachers to express their views and for administrators to have consultation with teachers. There are two organisations of teachers in the State — one of university teachers, and another a union of all

the teachers of the State. These agencies are of recent origin and they have still to organise themselves well for making any significant impact on educational planning in the State. There are no organisations of headmasters and of subject-teachers and the Department has to consider as to how it could promote the formation of such bodies.

A healthy trend which has been developing during the last few years is the organisation of seminars of teachers by the Department of Education. They provide an opportunity to teachers to study and exchange views on educational problems and foster a sense of professional responsibility. They can, however, produce much more valuable results if the Department evolves a regular system of studying the outcomes of seminars and undertaking follow-up work.

INSPECTION. — One of the main functions of administration is to provide for regular inspection of the work done in the field. The Department of Education has regular inspecting staff and certain rules have been laid down in the Code¹ for the guidance of the inspecting staff. It defines the main duty of the inspecting officers as checking and assessing the work and efficiency of educational institutions. It also recognizes that the inspecting officers should give advice based on sound knowledge and experience. But the continual expansion of administrative responsibilities tends to tie down the inspecting staff to routine administrative problems like recruitment of staff, transfers, building, supply, auditing, etc., and they are hardly able to do inspection in its proper sense which essentially means evaluation and guidance. It is worth examining by the Department whether it should not define inspection in such a way that all administrative functions, which inspectors sometimes spend most of their time on, may be excluded from the function of an inspector. A similar suggestion was made by the Education Fellowship Group on Administration, Inspection and In-service Training during the N.E.F. Conference in 1960.

The function of providing guidance to teachers has suffered most due to the inspecting staff being overwhelmed with administrative work. If the inspecting staff is relieved from the routine administration, they may be in a better position to discharge their responsibility in this field.

The N.E.F. Group while discussing the problems of administration, inspection and in-service training considered the possibility of employing advisers, in addition to inspectors, whose sole purpose may be to promote better teaching of subjects or stages in education,

¹ *The Educational Code of Rajasthan, 1957, Chapter V.*

and who are not concerned with making formal judgment which may affect a school's reputation or a teacher's prospects of promotions. An advantage of such an arrangement, as observed by the group, may be that such a person can acquire relationship of trust with teachers which is free from fear or subservience on their part, and which leaves them independence of action. With a much more natural relationship of this kind, far more fruitful work can be done. The Group also observed that this kind of work can be carried out by teachers' colleges with extra-mural functions. The government has already made a move in this direction by establishing Extension Services Departments at two teachers' colleges in the State. More effective ways and means of collaboration between the Department of Education and teachers have to be worked out.

The State has not recognized the importance of specialized training for the inspecting staff. The inspecting staff is recruited only on the basis of experience and seniority. Though the University of Rajasthan provides courses for the training of the inspecting staff, yet the Department does not seem to recognize the value of such a training. If the inspecting staff is not to have the benefit of coming into contact with recent ideas on education and guidance, their growth is likely to suffer and their mind fall into a rut, and lose freshness and vigour.

BACKGROUND

What is now known as the Uttar Pradesh had a humble beginning in the second half of the eighteenth century. After the Battle of Buxar in 1764 when Clive defeated the combined forces of Mir Kasim of Bengal, Nawab Suja-ud-daula of Oudh and Shah Alam at Delhi, the Nawab of Oudh ceded the district of Banaras and areas adjoining it and Shah Alam not only granted Dewani but passed on the virtual control of the districts of Allahabad and Kora to the British. During the weak regime of Shah Alam and his successors, the territories of the East India Company extended westwards. As a result of Wellesley's Subsidiary Alliance System, the Nawab of Oudh had to cede to the British in 1801 the Doab and certain territories in Rohilkhand. A resident was also appointed at Lucknow.

In spite of such unsettled conditions, a few educational institutions on modern lines sprang up. In 1791, Jonathan Duncan started a Sanskrit College at Banaras. It was organised for securing competent interpreters of Hindu law, which was so constantly involved in the administration of justice in those days.¹ It may be noted that the first European school, established in the province, is the famous La Martiniere School of Lucknow. It was started by a Frenchman. By 1827, there were four educational institutions which were receiving state aids. These were: (1) a school in Allahabad receiving a monthly aid of Rs. 100 plus a non-recurring aid of Rs. 1,000,² (2) the Jainarayan School of Banaras receiving grant of Rs. 3,033,³ (3) the Delhi College, Delhi receiving a grant of Rs. 3,000⁴ and (4) a school at Kanpur receiving Rs. 400.⁵ Besides these, there was the Agra College, which was founded in 1824 from the rents of certain lands held by one Gungadhar Shastree.

It may be noted that all these institutions were administered by the Bengal Council of Education. The control of the educational institutions in the North-Western Provinces

¹ *Supra*, p. 3.

² Sharp, H, ed. 'Fisher's Memorials'. *op. cit.*, p. 186

³ *Ibid.*, p. 189.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 188.

⁵ Richie, ed. *op. cit.* p. 182.

was transferred from the Government of Bengal to Local Government together with the funds belonging to the colleges at Banaras, Agra and Delhi and all local resources, by a Resolution of the Supreme Government, dated the 29th April, 1840¹ At the time of the transfer, there were in the new provinces three colleges and nine anglo-vernacular schools maintained by government For administering education in the provinces, Mr. M S Reid, a civil servant, was appointed as the visitor-general in 1850

After the Wood's Despatch, a Department of Education was set up in the provinces, and Mr Reid became the first Director of Public Instruction in 1855 He administered all educational affairs Mr Reid's headquarters were at Allahabad, where the capital was shifted from Agra in 1857

On July 14, 1858 this officer issued the first codified rules of grant-in-aid for non-government institutions in the following terms "Every school in which some secular instruction is imparted is eligible to receive the grant, it being provided that the grant shall in no case exceed the sum expended on the school from private sources Schooling fees should be paid by at least two-thirds the number of pupils on the roll"² The condition of requiring half the sum of maintenance from private sources made it difficult for non-missionary institutions to comply with, and it is no wonder therefore that in 1882 while there were 17 non-government high schools under Indian management, there were as many as 104 under the management of Christian Missions³ The financial position of the entire education just before the Hunter Commission was as follows Rs 216,000 were spent by government for the maintenance of state institutions, payment of the inspectorate and administrative officers and for giving grants to non-government schools, Rs 5,44,000 were spent by local bodies to maintain primary schools which were started after the Indian War of Independence of 1857 and only Rs 84,000 were paid by private organisations or donations⁴ For higher education, there were two government colleges at Banaras and Allahabad and two semi-government institutions at Lucknow and Agra There were missionary institutions of higher education at Kanpur, Agra and Gorakhpur

After the publication of the Hunter Commission's Report, a number of non-government institutions under Indian management were opened and new colleges were established at Meerut and Bareilly In 1887, the Allahabad University was established which was developed out of the Muir Central College It is interesting to note that though till 1906

¹ *Ibid*, p 228

² *Ibid*, p 274-75

³ L Mukherjee *Problems of Administration of Education in India* Allahabad, Kitab Mahal, 1960 p 27

⁴ *Ibid*, p 29,

Oudh was considered to be a separate chief commissioner's province, yet N.W.P. and Oudh were under a common Director of Public Instruction. In 1906 the two provinces were amalgamated, and the new province was called the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh with a lieutenant-governor as its head and with Allahabad as its capital.

In that very year an experiment was made by transferring the control of all government schools to non-government agencies, but it created a great confusion, with the result that the experiment had to be abandoned within a year and the government assumed control of non-government institutions once again.¹

A new era in university education began in the provinces due to the recommendations of the Calcutta University (Sadler) Commission's Report. In 1916, a teaching and residential university was already established in Banaras for the Hindus. This was followed by the organization of unitary universities at Aligarh and Lucknow in 1920. The Allahabad university was relieved of its affiliating functions in 1921 on the establishment of the Agra university, which started functioning as an affiliating body in that year.

Another result of the Calcutta University Commission's Report was the creation of the High School and Intermediate Boards for the province. The control of the high school leaving examination as well as that of intermediate examination passed on to this new body, with the Director of Education as its chairman, an official secretary and 35 other members as representatives of schools, intermediate colleges, universities as well as a few nominated officers.² The universities of Banaras and Aligarh were, however, permitted to hold parallel school leaving and intermediate examinations for their associated institutions only. Unlike other provinces, many intermediate colleges sprang up in U.P. and the Intermediate Examination was considered, for all intents and purposes, to be within the orbit of secondary education.

With the advent of the Montford Reforms, the popular ministry tried to spread primary education. But at times it came into open conflict with the Director of Public Instruction regarding the policy. A change came in 1937 with the grant of provincial autonomy and the first Congress Minister of the Province appointed a committee to inquire into the condition of primary and secondary education with Acharya Narendra Deva as its chairman. The report was published only in 1939, when the Congress Ministry

¹ *Progress of Education in India*. With Quinquennial Review, 1907-12, Vol. I, pp. 73-98

² U.P. Intermediate Education Act, 1921

had resigned. Though only of academic importance, it made many useful suggestions. It tried to do away with the two-way ladder system of giving vernacular education through primary schools for four years and middle schools for three years, and anglo-vernacular education through A.V. high schools which had an upper primary stage usually from Class III for two years followed by a high school stage of six years' duration with an additional two years for the intermediate stage.

The Narendra Deva Committee did away with this disparity at the primary stage by envisaging a common primary or junior basic course of five years both for rural and urban areas. Regarding secondary education, the Committee observed

The system must be a complete, self-sufficient, and integrated whole. It ought not to be subordinated to the requirements of university education and should not be considered as merely a stage in the educational ladder as a wasteful opening into the hall of higher learning. The courses should be self-sufficient and constitute a unit by themselves. Courses of various types, therefore, be provided to suit boys with different aptitudes and talents.

The Committee further suggested that the higher secondary stage should be of four years duration (Std. IX to XII) with provision of alternative courses divided into four categories, i.e., A, B, C, and D which are literary, scientific, constructive and aesthetic. It further held that though the majority of secondary schools should be multilateral in nature, yet a fair proportion of the institutions should be unilateral or bilateral also.

Though the recommendations of the Narendra Deva Committee remained mostly on paper, yet the Advisory Regime which followed the resignation of the Congress Ministry did reform primary education by converting the primary schools into Basic institutions. In these schemes, a craft was taught along with art and music. Thus the system of correlation as proposed in orthodox Basic school according to the Wardha Scheme was not followed.

It was in 1939, that the reorganisation at the secondary level began. A number of middle and high schools were converted into higher secondary schools. Curriculum was also widened with the provision of literary, scientific, constructive (commercial, agricultural and industrial) and aesthetic (music and arts) courses. But the practical result showed that ninety per cent of the candidates offered arts, science and commerce courses. The few that offered constructive courses found that they were led into a blind alley. They were neither competent enough to secure jobs, nor had they sufficient resources and perhaps training to start business of their own.

Thus the changes introduced in the curriculum of the reorganised scheme of secondary education were bitterly criticized and many questioned their practicability. Accordingly, on March 18, 1952, the U.P. Government appointed the second Acharya Narendran Deva Committee to examine the various groups, A,B,C and D of the curriculum and to report how far this classification of subjects served their essential purpose. The Committee submitted its report on May 8, 1953. It made comprehensive proposals including further reform of the curriculum. It recommended the elimination of the subdivision of subjects into main and subsidiary, a better co-ordination between the technical and general educational courses and the carrying over the final year of Intermediate classes to the University.

Regarding the acceptance of the three-year degree course as envisaged in the Radhakrishnan University Commission Report and the Mudaliar Commission Report, this State first opposed the scheme. It was feared that its well-established intermediate colleges would suffer a break-up by the slashing of a year and that fifty per cent of its intermediate teachers would be thrown out of employment as it was not possible for the majority of them to find employment in degree colleges which require a different type of qualifications. The State has, however, now agreed to fall in line with other states provided its structure of secondary education upto the intermediate stage is allowed to be kept in tact.

ADMINISTRATION AT THE HEADQUARTERS

One peculiar feature of the administration in the U.P. is the want of a clear-cut centre of administration. After the First War of Indian Independence, the capital was shifted from Agra to Allahabad while Lucknow remained the capital of Oudh. From 1921 onwards there has been a steady attempt to shift the capital from Allahabad to Lucknow, though some of the offices are stationed at Allahabad. Education is one of the few departments that suffers from this bifurcation. While the Education Minister and his Secretary have their offices at Lucknow, the office of the Director of Public Instruction, who since 1947 is called the Director of Education, is at Allahabad. The Director himself has a camp office at Lucknow, where he stays for the most part of the year.

The Education Minister defines the general policy and is responsible to the legislature. In addition, he has at present Home and Information portfolios too. He is assisted by a deputy minister, who is solely in charge of education. The Education Secretary is an administrative officer and executes the general policy and looks to the appointment and transfer of gazetted officers of the Department. The main burden of administration falls on the Director of Education. Besides him, the headquarters staff consists of a

joint director of education, five deputy directors of education (of whom one is a lady) and two assistant deputy directors. There is also a special post, known as the 'Director of Training'. He is the executive head of all government training colleges.

The entire State is further divided into eight regions, with a deputy director for each region. The names of these regions are: Meerut, Agra, Allahabad, Lucknow, Varanasi, Gorakhpur, Bareilly and Uttar Khand. The Director of Education has delegated a part of his responsibility to the regional deputy directors. This includes the administration of the grants-in-aid, arbitration of disputes between teachers and managements, hearing appeals against inspectors, collection of statistics, and enforcement of the director's orders.

Each region is further divided into districts, with a district inspector of schools for each district. He is responsible for the efficient administration of the schools under his jurisdiction. He recommends grants-in-aid and reports against mal-administration to the Regional Deputy Director. While he is entitled to inspect all schools, he can officially visit an intermediate college as the chairman of a panel consisting of three members. The panel should include at least one principal of an intermediate college and a member from a degree college.

High schools are inspected by the district inspector, and middle schools generally by an assistant inspector. Primary schools are in charge of a deputy inspector of schools. He is assisted by a number of sub-deputy inspectors, who visit district board schools.

Till recently, the administration of primary education in a district was entrusted to a District Education Committee with a chairman and the deputy inspector as its secretary. This duality of control often resulted in open conflict between the chairman and the secretary, because while the former had the executive emergency powers, the latter was the administrative officer. Disciplinary transfers of teachers recommended by the deputy inspector were often turned down by the chairman. Due to the appointment of the *antaram zila parishad* for each district board, this conflict has ended for the time being. The *parishad* consists of nominated persons with limited powers, and thus the deputy inspector's voice is now supreme.

The State has 114 municipalities and 5 corporations at Agra, Kanpur, Allahabad, Varanasi and Lucknow. The responsibility of administration of primary institutions in these local bodies rests in the Education Committee of the municipal board or corporation. Some of them have intermediate colleges (and one of them has even a degree college) under them. The Educational Committee in such a case is considered on par with a private

management. These institutions are inspected by the government inspectorate, and they are treated like other aided institutions.

Besides this usual administrative machinery, there are special inspectors for *makhats* and Sanskrit *pathshalas*. There is no separate arrangement for the inspection of primary schools for girls of rural areas, where they are generally inspected by the deputy or the sub-deputy inspector. The corporations and municipalities usually appoint two superintendents of education — one for boys' schools and the other, usually a lady, for girls' schools. Each of the eight regions has a regional inspectress of girls' schools. She inspects all the girls' schools within her jurisdiction, and also visits Intermediate Colleges as the chairman of the panel of three. The regional inspectresses are directly under the Assistant Directress of Girls' Schools.

Each inspector or regional inspectress appoints an advisory body consisting of heads of institutions within his or her jurisdiction. But such a body has no statutory recognition. There is another officer called the Registrar of Departmental Examinations, whose responsibility is to hold departmental examinations in languages, vernacular final for rural schools and also to conduct teachers' training examinations for primary teachers as well as for junior high school teachers. He also conducts post-graduate training examinations for high school teachers, though this job is also being shared by the universities.

There is an officer for text-books, who appoints reviewers for books and prescribes text-books upto the junior high school level. The publication of the *Shiksha*, an official educational journal, is under another officer called the Editor. He is helped by an advisory board of editors.

STATUTORY BODIES

The most important statutory body is the Board of High School and Intermediate Education constituted by an Act in 1921, which was amended in 1958. The Director of Education is its *ex-officio* chairman and it has a whole-time secretary assisted by a number of assistant secretaries. The Board has a number of representatives of headmasters and principals, a representative from each of the universities and a number of nominated officials. It conducts the high school and intermediate examinations for the entire State (except the examinations in the feeder institutions of Banaras and Aligarh universities), and prescribes their courses and text-books. It further grants recognition to different institutions on the recommendations of district inspectors or regional inspectresses. The Board forms a number of subject committees, consisting of its own members and a few outside experts. The committees prescribe text-books and frame courses in their specific fields. The Board has, however, no power to recommend grants-in-aid.

The Regional Arbitration Boards are semi-statutory bodies. Formerly they were provided in the Educational Code but now they are approved by the U.P. Intermediate Education Act of 1958. A teacher working in the government school is appointed by the Public Services' Commission and his services are regulated by government service rules. Teachers of aided schools and intermediate colleges are appointed by a selection committee, which is set up for each district. Such appointments should, however, be approved by the district inspector. It is suggested that the selection committee should further include an expert from a panel prepared by the district inspector, when headmasters and principals are to be appointed. Dismissal, removal or degradation of a teacher can be done only with the prior approval of the district inspector for a teacher and of the regional deputy director for a headmaster or principal. They can, however, appeal to the Regional Arbitration Board, which consists of the regional deputy director as its chairman and a representative of the U.P. Secondary Teachers' Association and another of the U.P. Managers' Association. An attempt is being made to form district advisory committees, consisting of representatives of teachers, managers and the district inspector for settling minor disputes. This scheme is, however, at an experimental stage in ten places only. It is too early to state what shape these bodies will finally take, as it is difficult to predict whether they will be statutory or mere advisory bodies.

A State Board of Social Education has been recently formed to look after adult education in the State. Its members are all nominated and a university vice-chancellor is its chairman. It is, however, under the Minister of Social Services. The State University Grants' Committee is another body, consisting of educationists nominated by the governor. It disburses new grants to the universities and affiliated colleges. The administration of routine block-grants is still under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of Education.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Administration of higher education in the Uttar Pradesh is left to the universities and this State has now the largest number of universities. The oldest is the Allahabad University which changed from an examining to a teaching body in 1921, though it retained its affiliating functions till the Agra University was created in 1926. The Agra University is a purely affiliating body even at present. The Banaras Hindu University has been functioning since 1916. Aligarh Muslim University and Lucknow University came into existence in 1920. These three universities are teaching and examining bodies. They, however, differ in character. The Banaras Hindu University and the Aligarh Muslim University are denominational all-India organisations and have non-official chancellors and vice-chancellors with executive powers vested in the pro-vice-chancellor.

The Central Government exercises control over them through the President of the Indian Republic, who is the *ex-officio* visitor of these two universities.

Agra University is an affiliating body, and its vice-chancellor had been till recently a mere part-time officer. The governor is the *ex-officio* chancellor of Agra, Allahabad and Lucknow universities. But the vice-chancellors of the two latter universities are full-time persons. They are nominated by the chancellor with due regard to the wishes of the court, the sovereign body of the university.

Due to the rapid expansion of university education after 1947, the character of the teaching universities has widely changed. The number of their affiliated degree colleges along with their undergraduate strength has increased considerably. The Courts or the Senates also grew unwieldy in size. It was, therefore, considered necessary to amend University Acts of Agra, Allahabad and Lucknow. According to the revised Acts, it is the Syndicate or the Executive Council which prepares the panel of the vice-chancellor and not the Senate or the Court. The number of representatives from the teachers' constituency has also been reduced and the principle of election has been replaced by rotation according to seniority. The constitutions of new universities have also been framed on these lines. These are the Engineering University of Roorkee, the University of Gorakhpur, the Sanskrit University of Varanasi, and the Agricultural University at Pant Nagar. Two more universities are likely to be established — one at Kanpur and the other at Meerut on the lines of the Gorakhpur University.

Thus, there is a wide divergence in the constitution and functions in the universities of this State. Banaras and Aligarh are central universities. But while the former has some degree colleges affiliated to it, the latter has none. The degree colleges of Aligarh town are affiliated to the Agra University. Roorkee and Pant Nagar universities are single faculty institutions. Allahabad, Lucknow and Gorakhpur universities have similar constitutions. With the exception of teacher education, all the universities conduct their entire post-graduate teaching. They share the undergraduate work and the training of teachers with their affiliated institutions. But while the jurisdiction of the Gorakhpur University spreads over the eastern districts of the State, the jurisdiction of Allahabad and Lucknow universities is restricted over an area of ten miles distance from their headquarters. The Medical College at Kanpur is, however, affiliated to the Lucknow University. The Agra University is an affiliating university with jurisdiction over western districts. Its recognised colleges can, however, carry on post-graduate teaching. The Varanasi Sanskrit University is purely unitary in nature.

The state government controls the universities in various ways. The vice-chancellor is nominated by the chancellor or the governor, though the chancellor's choice is limited to the panel of three selected by the executive council. If the decision of the council is unanimous, the chancellor has to abide by it. The chancellor, being the constitutional head of the State, is further authorised to nominate as many members on the Executive Council as there are *ex-officio* teachers on it. These teachers are generally the deans of different faculties. The Director of Education and the Director of Medical Services are also *ex-officio* members of the executive council.

The sanction of the state government is further necessary for the approval of any new item of expenditure. The University Grants Committee of the State also disburses new grants to universities and affiliated colleges. There is also the University Grants Commission of the Centre, which is approached by all the universities for financial assistance. The Commission, however, gives grants only when the matching grant from the state government is available (except in case of Banaras Hindu and Aligarh Muslim universities, which are direct concerns of the central government). These grants are, however, very limited in nature.

The state government further controls the appointment of teachers. Besides a few members of the executive council, every selection committee must have two or three experts chosen from a panel approved by the chancellor. Teachers appeal to the chancellor against the decisions of the vice-chancellor or the executive council. His decision is, however, shaped to a great extent by the Minister of Education.

The government colleges are under the direct control of the Director of Education. The private institutions have their own boards of management or governing bodies. As they receive grants from the State, so they are under partial control of the state government. Every private college has its own selection committee for the appointment of its teachers. It consists of representatives of the university as well as of its governing body including its principal, and a few experts appointed by the chancellor. The government further prescribes the salary grades of teachers of the universities as well as of degree colleges. It also awards scholarships and research grants. Thus except for the two central universities which are primarily the concern of the central government, the state government wields a considerable control over all colleges and universities within the State. No doubt, it is exercised indirectly.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Except for the two feeder institutions of Aligarh and Banaras universities, the entire secondary education is under the dual control of the Board of High School and Intermediate

Education and the State Department of Education. The Board grants recognition to the institutions, fixes the curriculum and prescribes text-books for the higher secondary stage only, and conducts the two public examinations, viz, the High School and Intermediate examinations. In the High School Examination, as many as 2,03,138 appeared in 1959 and in 1962 the number was still larger.¹ It may be noted that this examination presents the largest number of examinees in the whole world. Even in the Intermediate Examination, as many as eighty-nine thousand students appeared in 1959.²

It may be noted that official influence dominates the Board. There are several reasons. In the first place, the Board is not free from official control, though it is a statutory body. The Director is its *ex-officio* chairman, the secretary is a senior government officer and its secretariat consists of government servants. In the second place, the government controls the purse strings, since no new item of expenditure can be operative without its prior sanction. Finally, a fair number of the members of the Board are state servants since they are *ex-officio* members. Though they do not form the majority, yet they hold the balance when there are factions among elected members.

• The secondary institutions are of two main types—government and non-government. Out of a total of 1,444 higher secondary schools in 1958-59 as many as 127 were of the first type. The teachers of these schools are government servants. They are appointed by the Public Services' Commission and are governed by government service rules. The pupils' tuition fee is the only source of income of these institutions, and the government has to bear the entire deficit. It is interesting to note that as much as 27.5 per cent of the entire budget for secondary education is spent over these institutions, though they enrol only nine per cent of the total clientele.

Non-government institutions are managed by three bodies: (1) municipalities and corporations, (b) *antarim zilla parishads* and (3) private managements—aided and unaided. The municipalities and corporations maintain hardly 40 intermediate colleges and high schools, which are under the control of the education committees with the Municipal Education Superintendent acting as the manager. They receive state aids and are subject to government inspection. Municipalities and corporations are not generally short of funds, and their teachers are paid regularly. The second type of institutions are under the management of the district boards or *antarim zilla parishads*, which have been formed for rural areas in 1958. These institutions are mostly junior high schools or former vernacular middle schools. It may be noted that the majority of secondary schools of the State are

¹ U. P. Government. *Shiksha Kee Pragati*, Vol. II, 1960. p. 27.

² *Ibid.*, p. 29.

of this type. Due to paucity of funds and other mismanagements, the district boards had to face huge deficits and teachers' salaries were not paid regularly. Due to the formation of *antaram zilla parishads*, the situation has improved. But the financial condition is not bright as yet.

A large number of non-government secondary institutions are managed by private bodies. They have their own managing committees, elected by representatives of their own educational societies. Organizations like the D.A.V., the various Christian societies, and a few other educational trusts run a number of schools of their own. Each of them has a common governing body for all their schools. The number of such institutions is not large, and the majority of educational societies are independent, isolated units. As many as 1,240 higher secondary schools receive maintenance grants from government. In assessing the aid due, a contribution by the management equal to one-fourth of the increments in teachers' salaries is taken into account. Except the missionary societies, the majority of private managements find it difficult to find the contribution. They resort to unfair tactics. Their first efforts are directed to augment their fee income by increasing student enrolment. This is possible by showing a good percentage of passes in public examinations which is unfortunately at times achieved by adopting certain questionable methods such as connivance at malpractices. In rural areas however, it is not always possible to increase enrolments and hence private managements sometimes compel teachers to sign for a pay and give them less so that the expenditure of the school as shown in the annual return submitted to government through the district inspector of schools shows a higher figure than what is actually spent. But the worst sufferers are the teachers, who are forced to contribute voluntarily (though it is by no means 'voluntary') for the welfare of the school. Sometimes the situation is partially eased by dispensing with the services of a well-paid teacher and by replacing him with a fresh recruit drawing a smaller pay. The saving is utilised for giving increments to others. Thus all these malpractices have their roots at the inability of private managements to meet the annual deficit. Private donations are also not sufficiently encouraging. With the abolition of the *zamindari* (landlord system), the State has lost a large number of feudal aristocrats who formerly used to contribute handsomely towards the welfare of schools. Many schools are at times forced to take additional levies from guardians by means of so called development donations. These are also not voluntary but are just unauthorised additional levies.

As many as 220 secondary schools are unaided. They meet their expenditure through tuition fees and such private donations as they can secure. As most of them live in the hope of receiving government grants, so they try to conform to the depart-

mental rules regarding scales of salary and increments. They too are forced to resort to malpractices unscrupulously so long as they do not get government grants.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

The control of primary education is vested mainly in the hands of the local bodies. In 1948, the government launched a new scheme and started opening 2,200 state primary schools per year. By 1951 the progress slowed down and most of the schools were transferred to the district authorities. The primary schools are administered by three types of managements—government, local bodies (municipalities and *antaram zilla parishads*) and private managements. Out of 36,363 primary schools in the State, as few as 357 are government institutions. The corporations and municipalities run 2,206 schools of their own. Each municipality or corporation has its own education committee with a superintendent of education as its chief executive officer. Some of the larger cities have a separate lady superintendent for girls' schools. The municipal schools are crowded with children of poor communities. Their teachers are poorly paid and they are generally ill-equipped. Though 15 municipalities have introduced the scheme of compulsory education, yet some of the guardians try to evade the responsibility as children in the age-group of 6-11 are economic assets and the attendance officers are not vigilant enough.

In rural areas the primary schools numbering 25,152 are under the district boards or at present under their successors, the *antaram zilla parishads*. They suffer from the same ills of dual management as do the junior high schools. Their teachers are poorly paid and receive less than peers of government schools. Even this meagre salary is often left in arrears due to mismanagement. Consequently, the teachers have little enthusiasm for work. The guardians are also apathetic to education and withdraw their children from schools as early as possible. The majority of children leave schools before they reach Class II and lapse into illiteracy once again, with the result that only one-third of children of primary school-going age 6-11 are attending schools in the State at present.

There are as many as 9,148 private aided primary schools. Some of them are just primary departments of Anglo-Vernacular schools. They charge tuition fees and also claim grants from the municipalities on per capita basis. A few of them have pre-primary or kindergarten and Montessori departments also. Their tuition fees are very high. Hence only rich parents can afford to send their children to such schools. This helps these private primary schools to pay attractive salaries to their teachers and secure services of such competent teachers as are not available in other types of schools.

They compare favourably with private schools of the U S A except that the private institutions of the U S A do not get any additional grants from public funds

BRANCHES OF EDUCATION NOT CONTROLLED BY THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Two important branches of education are not controlled by the Minister of Education. These are medical and technical education. Expenditure over these two items is not included in the Education Budget of the State. There are three medical colleges—at Lucknow, Kanpur and Agra. They award the M B B S degree. There is provision for M D and M S degrees, and for diplomas in Dentistry, Public Health and Ophthalmology. The academic control of the medical colleges rests with the universities (the first two under the Lucknow University, and the third under the Agra University), but they are state institutions and as such they are under the administrative control of the Minister of Public Health. The University of Lucknow awards *ayurvedic* degree also. Engineering education is completely under the Ministry of Industries. At the apex of the engineering institutions is the Roorkee University, which is a state university. It awards the B E and M E degrees. The university also holds an overseers' examination for matriculates. They have to study for a period of two years either in the Roorkee College or in two schools for overseers at Lucknow or in a number of temporary schools opened in other cities and recognised for this purpose. There are three government technical schools at Lucknow, Gorakhpur and Jhansi. They also admit matriculates and award certificate after three years' training. The last year of the course is the apprentice period. The two central universities viz., Banaras and Aligarh have their own engineering colleges. The Banaras University has also its own colleges of technology and mining engineering. The Harcourt Technological Institute of Kanpur admits science graduates for the Diploma course and undergraduates for the certificate course. It is at present controlled by the Ministry of Industry but in the near future the institute will come directly under the Central Government. There is also a forest college at Dehradun which is controlled by Government of India.

Thus the three medical institutions are under the dual control of the Health Minister and universities. The Engineering University of Roorkee and the technical schools of Lucknow, Jhansi and Gorakhpur as well as the Harcourt Technological Institute are directly under the Ministry of Industries which controls even academic administration. The Overseers' courses at Lucknow and elsewhere are offered in private aided institutions under the orbit of the Roorkee University academically, but financially aided by the Industries Department. The technological and engineering colleges of Banaras and the Engineering Department of the Aligarh University come under the control of the Central

Government which may take over the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute also.

The Ministry of Education has no control over these institutions. Hence the State Annual Report on Education does not furnish their educational data. This is a big handicap for any person to get an overall picture of progress of education of the State in all its phases. Moreover, these are being run to secure the necessary personnel for services and their courses do not pay sufficient heed to true academic needs

A notable feature of this State is its organization of administration of technical education at the secondary level. The Industries Department introduced two examinations, viz., (1) High School Examination and (2) Intermediate Technical Examination in 1955. With effect from 1959, these two examinations have been handed over to the Board of High School and Intermediate Examination. These courses have been revised and include:

1. *High School Technical Education Examination*: (1) Electrical Wiring for Electrician, (2) Light Mechanics, (3) Block Smithy, (4) Sheet Metal Work, (5) Welding and Soldering, (6) Printing Press Work and (7) Elements of General Engineering; and

2. *Intermediate Technical Examination*: (1) Elements of Mechanical Engineering, (2) Elementary Electrical Engineering, (3) Elementary Civil Engineering, (4) Elementary Electronics, and (5) Elementary Auto-mobile Engineering

Out of the new courses mentioned above, courses in Elements of General Engineering at the High School (Technical) Examination and Elements of Mechanical and Elementary Electrical Engineering at the Intermediate Technical Examinations have been started in ten government multipurpose schools and one aided private institution of the State. Adequate provision has been made for intensive work-shop practice for the students offering these courses

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

Like medical and technical education, social education of adults is also outside the orbit of the Department of Education. It is under the Minister of Social Services. The Uttar Pradesh is one of the backward states with regard to adult literacy and whatever schemes were introduced by the Congress Ministries in 1937 received a set back during the advisory regime and a number of newly opened adult libraries were closed. The only notable feature that is continued is the celebration of what is known as the 'literacy week' when pupils mostly of urban areas parade through the streets and shout slogans. This has a propaganda rather than an educational value. In 1950 a two-men committee was formed by the state government to revive the programme of adult education, but

before the recommendations of the committee could be considered, the Central Government launched its five-year plans. Consequently, the State was divided into a number of blocks for the implementation of developmental schemes. The new programme keeps social education rather than literacy in the forefront, and even social education at certain places is supplemented with vocational education. The opinions are divided regarding the extent of literacy attained by the illiterates under the new scheme. Experience, however, shows that progress is faster among men than among women. Any scheme of social education should also bear in mind that two-thirds of children of primary school-going age are not receiving any school education and that there is considerable wastage and stagnation. It will, therefore, be necessary to implement a programme of continuation education for such children. The dearth of *gram-sevikas* is another big handicap in the implementation of the programme among the ladies. The writer conducted two surveys¹ for evaluating the success of social education programmes at Kanpur in 1957 and at Lucknow in 1959 and found that the success of the scheme was only partial in both the areas. The Lucknow survey included the study of the well-known pilot project at Bakshika Tabah, which is much advertised and is one of the three areas for intensive development selected by the state government with foreign aid. This pilot project lacks that real inspiring influence on social education programme of the State as it was supposed to produce.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE AND LOCAL BODIES

During 1958-59, there were 11,724 recognised educational institutions in the State. Of these, 3.7 per cent were managed by government, 80.1 per cent by local boards and 15.6 per cent by private bodies (10.0 per cent aided and 5.6 per cent unaided)².

Among the private bodies, the Christian missionary societies are the pioneers. The Methodist, Baptist, Wesleyan, S.P.C. and Catholic Missions were the first to come forward for spreading education. They could receive liberal help from foreign lands, viz., U.K., U.S.A., France, Spain and Germany. They, as mentioned earlier, are able to qualify themselves to secure government aids easily, as they can match state grants without much difficulty. Their proselytising activities, however, evoked bitter resentment from the more conservative elements. Parallel Indian private bodies have, however, been established. The most important of these is the D.A.V. These institutions are knitted together by the Arva Samaj. Other religious sects like the Muslims, Sikhs and the *Sanatandharms*

¹ Studies referred to here are two Ph.D. dissertations of Kanpur by I. Mukherjee and B. B. Gupta (1957-58) and of Lucknow by I. Mukherjee and R. N. Misra (1959-60).

² U.P. Government *Shiksha Kee Praalti*, Vol. II, 1960 p. 9.

opened their own schools. Linguistic minorities like Bengalis, Sindhis, Maharastrians, and communities like the Kanyakubja Brahmins, Kayasthas, Kshattriyas, Khettris, Vaishyas and the like are also organising their schools and colleges. The one result of so many different institutions is the division of the State into a number of sub-cultural islands.

Private individuals have also established educational institutions—some have philanthropic motives and others are profiteering concerns. With the abolition of the *zamindari* or landlord system, the first type of institutions are gradually disappearing. The attainment of independence has also brought in new problems. In the first place, all schools are required to open their doors to all communities; and religious instruction, if any, is to be optional, provided they care for state grants. In the second place, financial contributions to mission schools from foreign lands show a fall and the public donation to education is dwindling down due to uncertain economic conditions. At the same time, the number of schools is increasing due to a rapid growth of education. The state aids are also not very liberal. Thus the situation is not very happy. Equally perplexing is the position of the headmaster or the principal of a private high school or college. It is rather anomalous. The head has to serve two masters. On one hand he is responsible to the Education Department for efficient administration, on the other, he is the tool of the management for enforcing voluntary contributions from teachers and in levying unauthorised fees on students. He has also to prepare a case against a teacher, whom the management wants to sack and very often he has to do it against his own will. The management may also at times interfere with the administration of such funds as the games fund for which he is responsible, or in the enforcement of disciplinary measures, for which the head of the institution is answerable to the inspector. The situation is worse, when the management's party politics guides his actions and activities. Such a state of affairs, however, does not exist in all institutions.

What has been said for private managements prevails on a wider scale in local bodies like municipalities, corporations and district boards. There too, the head of the institution has to please different factions within the local body. In rural areas, he has to please the chairman of the Education Committee (now happily non-existent temporarily with the establishment of *antarim zilla parishads*) and the deputy inspector of schools. The same is the situation in urban schools too. It is no wonder, therefore, that the cause of education suffers.

EDUCATIONAL FINANCES

In the budget of 1960-61, the government have proposed to spend Rs. 17,22,96,200 on education (excluding engineering and medicine), which represents less than 11 per cent

of the total budget of Rs. 160 crores for the entire State. The proposed distribution of this amount over different heads (excluding administration) is given below:

TABLE 74
Education Budget, U.P., 1960-61

Sr. No.	Item	Amount (in rupees)
1.	Universities	44,62,200
2.	Government degree colleges	10,32,200
3.	Non-government degree colleges	60,11,200
4.	Government professional colleges	5,66,000
5.	Non-government professional colleges	1,28,000
6.	Government professional schools	82,87,000
7.	Non-government professional schools	8,88,500
8.	Government secondary schools	1,03,71,500
9.	Non-government secondary schools	2,70,21,800
10.	Government primary schools	10,77,800
11.	Non-government primary schools	5,92.26,000

Over and above the amount shown in the table, a sum of Rs. 12,27,000 has been assigned on the salaries of the Director of Education and his deputies, and a sum of Rs. 12,10,500 for the salaries of other inspecting staff, viz., district inspectors, deputy inspectors, assistant inspectors and sub-deputy inspectors.¹

During 1958-59, the government met 56.4 per cent of the total expenditure on education, while the contribution from the local boards, fees, endowments and other sources was 7.7, 23.5, 1.5 and 10.9 per cent respectively. On an average, the annual cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 280.2 in arts and science colleges, Rs. 101.8 in a high/higher secondary school, Rs. 49.4 in a middle school and Rs. 19.1 in a primary school. The average annual cost per capita (of population) was Rs. 4.7.² The private institutions are paid grants in terms of average attendance of students as well as for every trained teacher. Roughly about one-third of the total expenditure of a private institution is met from grants, and the rest from fees, donations, and other sources. When the private managements cannot make up the deficit, they resort to several unfair means which have already been discussed.

¹ Statistical data are taken from *U.P. Budget, 1960-61* (Hindi Edition), Vol. IV. pp. 143-178.

² *Education in the States, 1958-59*, p. 96.

It is necessary to check the undesirable tactics adopted by private managements for wiping out their deficits. The State should not only be more vigilant, but should also award liberal grants. Socialism has many virtues, but it has one drawback. It dries up private charities. Naturally the more socialistic becomes the outlook of the government, the greater is the need for the State to step in and fill the void created due to the drying up of philanthropic gifts from land-lords who are nonexistent today. The sooner it is realised, the better will be the progress of education in U.P.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

Like any other state, the Uttar Pradesh has adopted her own five-year plans. In 1951-52, the First Plan was started. It ended in 1955-56, when the Second Plan began. The progress of education during the two plan periods can be properly understood with the help of the comparative data available for progress of education in the State during in 1945-46. The following table gives statistical figures of the educational budget:

TABLE 75

A Comparative Statement of Education Budgets, U.P., 1945-46 to 1959-60 *

Year	Boys' Education	Girls' Education	Total Educational Budget
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1945-46	2,21,59,600	35,56,400	2,57,46,000
1950-51	6,61,14,800	76,29,400	7,37,44,200
1955-56	9,30,63,300	89,53,200	10,20,26,500
1959-60	11,85,21,200	1,03,91,300	12,89,96,400
Recurring Plan Fund	—	—	3,30,96,400

*U. P. Government. *Shiksha Kee Pragati*, 1960, Vol. II, p. 3.

The table thus shows that the tempo of the increase was more in the pre-plan period than during the plan period, owing to the demands made in other spheres of administration. It was during the second plan period that a definite sum has been set apart for capital expenditure, i.e., increase of facilities in the shape of buildings and equipments. The actual expansion took place in the increase in the number of schools and in the enrolment of the students during the plan periods both in secondary and primary education. This can be seen from the following statistics.:

TABLE 76

A Comparative Statement of Secondary Education, U.P., 1945-46 to 1958-59*

Year	Institutions		Enrolment	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1945-46	356	58	1,56,133	13,315
1950-51	833	154	3,59,850	57,825
1955-56	1,253	221	5,56,530	87,599
1958-59	1,378	256	6,73,950	1,24,307

*U. P. Government. *Shiksha Kee Pragati*, 1960, Vol. I, p. 17.

TABLE 77

A Comparative Statement of Primary Education, U.P., 1945-46 to 1959-59**

Year	Institutions		Enrolment	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1945-46	17,545	1,172	11,95,636	1,75,058
1950-51	29,459	2,520	32,92,175	3,34,948
1955-56	29,202	2,696	22,56,231	4,58,596
1958-59	32,871	3,492	28,83,841	6,33,244

**U. P. Government. *Shiksha Kee Pragati*, 1960, Vol. I, p. 9.

The above two tables show that instead of increase in facilities, there was actually a decrease at the primary level during the first plan period. Secondary education, however, expanded during the period. Efforts were, however, made to make amends in the Second Plan, and the number of secondary and primary schools with pupil enrolment increased. Such an increase has been possible through the provision of capital expenses as has been mentioned. The number of libraries set apart for adult education has, however, remained stationary at 1,000 for males and 40 for females during 1946-1956. It has recently been increased to 1,015 and 13 respectively in 1957-58. This is evidently inadequate for a large State like the Uttar Pradesh.

But there are other aspects of the five-year plans. There is an entire change in the concept of education of the adults. It is no longer confined to mere literacy, but includes education of civic life like cooperation, health education, improvement of agriculture and the spread of our cultural thought, discussions and audio-visual education. 'Community development projects include cooperative farming, building up of roads and filling up

of unhealthy pits by joint labour. Libraries are to be opened for neo-litrates. Three pilot surveys were made, one in Etawah District, another in the Hastinapur area in Meerut District and a third in Bukshi Ka Talab in the Lucknow District. As a result of these surveys conducted under expert foreign advice and aided by philanthropic foreign foundations, the National Extensions Services scheme has taken a shape. The entire State is divided into a number of blocks, which are being developed. Roughly one-third of the total area of the State has come within the orbit of the first development schemes, and the work is progressing there which when completed will release the energies for the remaining areas. The task is stupendous, and from the survey conducted under the personal supervision of the author, as mentioned before, the workers do not seem to be quite enthusiastic.¹ This is partly due to dearth of workers and lack of coordination, but more due to the paucity of funds and the vast magnitude of the problems. These may slow down the tempo of the movement.

Another impact of the plans had been the growth of a number of technical institutions. These are training overseers as the work of reconstruction needs technicians. But the engineering schools which previously existed could not meet the demand. Economic progress of the State as envisaged by the hydro-electric development, and building of roads, and development of industries and the improvement of agriculture as envisaged by the five-year plans is expected to have its slow but sure effect on the improvement of education, firstly by creating a demand and then by producing means to finance the same. Progressive urbanisation and building up of roads is providing that mobility which is conducive to enlightenment. The net result is that though, the present picture of the state of education is rather gloomy, yet the clouds have their silver linings and it is hoped that however dark the Uttar Pradesh of To-day may appear, Uttar Pradesh of To-morrow may not be so dark. A day will come when this State, claiming one-sixth of whole India's population, will occupy its rightful place in educational development also.

¹ *Supra* p. 529.

FORMATION OF THE STATE

The province of West Bengal, which later became one of the A states of the Indian Union, came into being on the 15th August, 1947, as a result of independence and the partitioning of India into India and Pakistan. Prior to that date, West Bengal was an integral part of Bengal which consisted of 28 districts including Calcutta. After partition, 14 districts including parts of 5 districts on the eastern border formed West Bengal.

In January, 1950, the State of Cooch Behar merged with the State of West Bengal as a separate district and in October, 1954, the hitherto French territory, Chandernagore, merged with the Hooghly district. In November, 1956, the major part of Purulia subdivision and a part of Kisanganje subdivision were transferred from Bihar to West Bengal. As a result, the State has now 16 districts and an area of about 50,928 sq. miles with a population of 3,49,67,634.¹

West Bengal, with the industrial centres surrounding Calcutta and the mineral areas in the district of Burdwan, was even before partition more industrial and urban than East Bengal. The multipurpose schemes such as the D.V.C. and the Durgapur Projects are going to promote further industrialisation. Hence the planners of education in West Bengal are taking into consideration the needs and aptitudes of the industrial population as much as those of the agricultural and rural.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

INTRODUCTION. --- The pattern of educational administration in West Bengal is more or less the same as in other states. The Education Minister is in charge of education for the State. He is assisted by the Education Secretary at the Secretariat level, and by the Director of Public Instruction who is the chief executive officer and technical adviser, having a headquarters staff known as the Directorate of Education and controlling both the inspecting and teaching staffs.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Wood's Despatch of 1854, the Council of Education which was administering education in Bengal was abolished and the Department of Public Instruction was created under an officer called the Director of Public Instruction on the 27th January, 1855.

The Department of Education in the sense of the Ministry of Education at the provincial level came into being not before 1921 when education became a provincial subject under the direct control of an elected education minister responsible to the provincial legislature. The Department in its comprehensive sense includes also the Education Directorate, the inspectorate and the teaching staff employed in government managed educational institutions of different classes as also the numerous assistants employed in clerical and other duties in connection with the offices to which they are attached.

Some aspects of education are not, however, under the control of the Education Department. Technical education is controlled partly by the Department of Commerce and Industries and partly by the Department of Education, Medical Education by the Medical and Public Health Department, agricultural education by the Department of Agriculture, veterinary education by the Department of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Sciences, while reformatory schools are under the control of the Home Department.

Besides running many institutions of various types, the government exercises some control and supervision at all stages of education from primary to university. This control is administrative, financial and academic. The administrative or legislative acts by which government transfers control and responsibility to statutory or public bodies define the relations between government and non-government educational authorities. Academic control relates to courses of studies, text-books, withdrawal and transfer of scholars, qualifications and pay-scales of teachers, etc. The degree of control varies from stage to stage. The general instrument of control is the system of grant-in-aid to which certain conditions are attached.

The authority of the Minister of Education in the matter of proper organization, management and control of education is exercised through officers of the Education Department (in its comprehensive sense) and other agencies like the universities, the Board of Secondary Education, district school boards, municipalities, the Calcutta Corporation and various societies both of religious and secular character.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. — The Education Minister is assisted by a deputy minister, who is a member of the state legislature and a secretary. Till March, 1948, a member of the Indian Civil Service used to be appointed as the Education Secretary. In April

of that year a departure was made from this practice and an educationist was appointed to the post

Before partition, the Secretary had below him an assistant secretary who was a member of the Bengal Civil Service and for some time, also an additional assistant secretary. He was promoted from the ministerial staff. Since partition the volume of work in connection with educational reconstruction and development has been increasing so rapidly that although there are at present four deputy secretaries including the officer on Special Duty (Planning), five assistant secretaries, the Registrar, the Officer on Special Duty, the officer for National Cadet Corps, and the two secretaries for the State Bureau of Education and the State Council for Broadcasting respectively, together with a much larger contingent of assistants at the Secretariat Branch of the Education Department, it cannot be said that this Office is adequately staffed.

Of the four deputy secretaries, two are members of the Indian Administrative Service, one is an educationist and the remaining one is a senior member of the West Bengal Civil Service. Of the five posts of assistant secretaries, one is reserved for members of the West Bengal Civil Service while the rest are open to promotion from the ministerial staff and they belong to the West Bengal General Service (Civil). It may be noted that the officers of the Education Directorate, the inspectorate and the various teaching branches belong to different West Bengal Educational Services.

THE EDUCATION DIRECTORATE In 1917-48, the headquarters staff of the Director of Public Instruction consisted of only 9 officers including an assistant director of public instruction and a chief inspector for primary education. Since then the staff has been considerably strengthened, yet there is a feeling that the Directorate has not the adequate staff to discharge the ever increasing functions properly.

At present there are 32 officers at the headquarters to assist the Director of Public Instruction. They include 3 assistant directors (administration, development, planning); 7 chief inspectors (primary and Basic education, secondary education, technical education, women's education, physical education, social (adult) education, social welfare, Inspector of Anglo-Indian Schools, 3 deputy chief inspectors (Basic education, primary education, secondary education), 2 officers on special duty (planning and secondary education, technical education), Assistant Director of Technical Training, Project Officer-cum-Executive Engineer, Secretary, Text-Book Committee, Hindi Education Officer, Inspector of Physical Education and Youth Welfare (Women), District Inspector of Schools, Special Cadre (Headquarters), Assistant Inspector for Special Duties, Assistant Chief Social

Education Officers; Inspector, Social Welfare; Assistant Inspector, Social Welfare; Assistant Inspector of Schools, Special Cadre (Headquarters); Special officer, Backward Class Education; Accounts Officer; Personal Assistant to the Director of Public Instruction; Travelling Auditor; and Officer on Special Duty (Development).

Besides these officers, there are 4 senior technical assistants of the rank of assistant inspectors of schools and 6 junior technical assistants of the rank of sub-inspectors at the headquarters to cope with the increasing work of technical nature.

THE INSPECTORATE.. — Besides the inspectors attached to the Directorate, the following inspecting officers form the inspectorate. The numbers shown against them refer to the position on 31-3-59.

TABLE 78

Inspectorate, West Bengal, 1959

Sr. No.	Designation	Strength
1.	District Inspectors and Additional District Inspectors of Schools	26
2.	District Inspectresses and Additional District Inspectresses of Schools	8
3.	Assistant Inspectors of Schools	50
4.	Assistant Inspectresses of Schools	3
5.	Sub Inspectors of Schools	306
6.	Inspector of <i>tols</i>	2
	Total	395

Government's main activities in the field of education are three-fold (1) the ownership and maintenance of a large number of educational institutions, (2) the grant of funds to non-government educational institutions, and (3) the inspection of all educational institutions which are wholly or partly maintained by it. The Director of Public Instruction is the executive officer in charge of all these activities. He is the appointing authority in regard to members of the Subordinate Educational Service. The assistant directors help the D.P.I. generally in matters relating to university and collegiate education. They are touring officers and inspect colleges. The first-grade government colleges are inspected by the Director himself.

The chief inspectors hold subordinate charge under the D.P.I. in all matters relating to particular fields of education. Some of them are assisted by their deputies in their

work. The Director keeps himself in close touch with the inspectorate through chief inspectors, who besides themselves inspecting institutions, are responsible for all inspection work in their respective spheres. The D.P.I. also meets the district inspectors and inspectresses in conferences held at the headquarters. The Education Minister sometimes addresses these conferences.

The district inspectors are the inspecting authorities for all high schools for boys except government schools, which are visited by the Chief Inspector, Secondary Education, or his deputy. In the case of girls it is the Chief Inspector, Women's Education, who visits government schools and district inspectresses inspect other high schools. The district inspector of schools supervises the work of assistant inspectors and sub-inspectors. The assistant inspector visits junior high schools and primary training schools and helps the district inspector in supervising the work of sub-inspectors. The sub-inspector's main duty is to inspect primary schools. Besides, he has to compile statements, prepare pay bills of teachers and carry on routine correspondence.

EDUCATION MINISTER, SECRETARY, DIRECTOR. — The respective functions of the Education Minister, Education Secretary and the Director of Public Instruction continue to be almost the same as were indicated in the Hartog Committee's Report about thirty years ago.

The Minister is responsible for controlling the educational policy (except in the case of Higher Scientific and Technical Education which have been reserved by the Central Government) and directing its execution. Although the state plans for educational development must conform to the Central Plans, much depends on the Minister himself. In the case of officers of gazetted ranks, no appointment can be made without his approval, although such appointments are usually made on the recommendations of the Public Services' Commission, West Bengal.

The Secretary is the official, who passes orders on behalf of government in respect of education. For most purposes, if not all, he acts as the superior officer of the Director. The letters and unofficial references of the Director pass through the Secretary's hands and are noted on by him before they reach the Minister. Routine cases are disposed of by the Secretary and all orders are issued in his name (except where some delegation has been made to the deputies or even to assistant secretaries). The main function of the Secretary is to examine and criticise the proposals of the Director from the point of broad policy and in the light of the financial position of government.

The Director is the principal executive officer of the Department of Education. He is no longer the only expert adviser to the Minister in matters of policy, although he

continues to be responsible for the administration of education over the whole State. He is an *ex-officio* member of the Syndicate, Academic Council and the Senate of the Calcutta University. In the case of the new universities of Jadavpur, Burdwan and Kalyani, the Education Secretary is an *ex-officio* member of these administrative bodies.

West Bengal is fortunate in having an educationist as the Education Secretary since April, 1948 and a new experiment was launched when on the 1st March, 1957, on the retirement of the last Director of Public Instruction, the Education Secretary assumed charge of the post of the Director of Public Instruction in addition to his own duties. There is now more "close and constant touch between policy-making and execution levels" but, as a former Director of Public Instruction, points out in an article in the *Modern Review* (March, 1960), so long as the Directorate and Secretariat offices remain separate, awkward situations may arise sometimes and delays may be difficult to avoid.

ADVISORY BODIES. — Several advisory bodies composed of experts, both official and non-official, help the Education Department with their valuable suggestions. They are (a) State Advisory Board of Basic Education (b) State Council for Technical Education, (c) State Advisory Board for Anglo-Indian Education, (d) State Advisory Board for Social (Adult) Education, (e) West Bengal Board of Madrasah Education, (f) Training Board, etc. Reference to the functions of these bodies will be made at appropriate places.

STATUTORY BODIES

INTRODUCTION — Reference has already been made to semi-official agencies through which government exercises its authority in the matter of organisation, management and control of education in this State. Of them, mention may be made of the following which are statutory bodies and whose powers and duties have been defined by the Statutes or Acts passed by the Legislature.

District School Board.—These have been formed in the fourteen districts of West Bengal, under the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930. They are the authorities for Primary and Junior Basic Education in rural areas.

The Board of Secondary Education, West Bengal — This board was formed under the West Bengal Secondary Education Act, 1950 (read with the West Bengal Secondary Education, Temporary Provisions Act, 1954) is responsible for the regulation, control and development of secondary education throughout the State except the area within the jurisdiction of the Visva-Bharati University.

Visva-Bharati.—Started by Tagore, the Visva-Bharati was incorporated as a statutory university in 1951 by an Act of the Central Legislature. It is under the jurisdiction of

the Central Government. The institutions including schools within the areas of Santiniketan and Sriniketan are parts of this residential university.

Calcutta University — This university was founded on January, 21, 1857. It is the largest teaching-cum-affiliating university of India. Till 1951, it was almost solely responsible for the collegiate and higher education in West Bengal. The Calcutta University Act, 1951 was passed with a view to reorganising the university so that it might effectively function as a teaching body and continue to exercise due control over the colleges, for the development of academic life and corporate unity in the colleges and to encourage the coordination of resources for higher teaching and research at suitable centres in and outside Calcutta.

Jadavpur University — This university came into being on 24th December, 1955 under the Jadavpur University Act, 1955. It is mainly a teaching university with powers "to establish, maintain, manage or affiliate institutions in an area within a radius of two miles from the place where the university has its offices and to take over the maintenance and management of any existing institution within such area." It has its teaching departments organised in three units of the university colleges of (i) Arts, (ii) Science (iii) Engineering and Technology.

Burdwan University — It is a teaching and affiliating university and it came into being on June 15, 1960 under the Burdwan University Act, 1959. It has jurisdiction over the districts of Bankura, Bhubaneswar, Burdwan, Hooghly and Purulia, without affecting the jurisdiction of Visva-Bharati over Santiniketan and Sriniketan.

Kalyani University — It has been established with effect from 1st September, 1960, under the Kalyani University Act, 1960 for "providing facilities for the study of humanities and sciences generally and agricultural, veterinary and the allied sciences in particular, and for conducting researches in those sciences for the benefit of the rural and other areas in the State of West Bengal." It will have the power to recognise any agricultural school in the State of West Bengal and to withdraw such recognition. Its jurisdiction is confined within the local limits of the police stations, Chakdah, Haringhata in the district of Nadia and the police station of Bipur in the Twenty-four Parganas.

PRIMARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

PRIMARY EDUCATION — Primary education is imparted in primary and junior Basic schools and also in the primary sections of secondary schools and *madrasahs*. In Calcutta, the Calcutta Corporation and in other municipal areas, the municipal boards exercise control over primary education. In rural areas, it is under the control of the district school

boards, except in the districts of Cooch Behar and Purulia, where they are yet to be formed. In respect of primary schools in municipal areas, the Education Department exercises control by sanctioning recognition and awarding grant-in-aid. The primary schools both in rural and municipal areas are, in general, under the direct supervision of the sub-inspectors of schools.

The district inspector of schools is the *ex-officio* secretary of the district school board and as such plays an important part in the administration of primary education in rural areas. In respect of primary schools in municipal areas, the district inspector is the adviser to local bodies. The central and the state governments also run some primary schools of their own. These are generally meant for special purposes. The few schools managed by the Central Government are chiefly meant for the children of railway employees. Those managed by the state government include demonstration schools attached to primary training schools. Besides the schools managed by government and local bodies, there are also schools under private management. Many of them receive aid from government or local bodies by fulfilling conditions laid down by them, while others are unaided.

Government control extends to all schools, except those which do not receive any aid, direct or indirect, from government. The state government determines the curriculum and syllabus, the qualifications and pay-scales of teachers, approves text-books, conducts the Primary Final Examinations at the end of Class IV, and prescribes rules governing various aspects of primary education. In order to ensure that the rules as laid down by government are followed, it has its inspecting agency.

At the directorate level, the Chief Inspector for Primary and Basic Education assisted by the Deputy Chief Inspector for Primary Education carries on the administration of primary education for the children of the age-group 6-11 through district inspectors of schools.

BASIC EDUCATION. — In conformity with the plan of educational development drawn up by the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1944, which was supported by the School Education Committee appointed by Government of West Bengal in 1948, the state government launched a scheme of junior Basic education for children of the age-group 6-11 in 1950, by gradually converting the existing primary schools into junior Basic schools and/or by setting up new junior Basic schools as 'Government Sponsored' ones.

There is a State Advisory Board of Basic Education and the members of the board have been drawn from persons, who have devoted years of patriotic service to the cause

of Basic education, as also from those directly connected with government Basic institutions and inspectorate. The state government has also formed a Board of Supervisors consisting of experts for the supervision of Basic training institutions.

For looking after Basic education, the Chief Inspector for Primary and Basic Education is assisted by the Deputy Chief Inspector for Basic Education. The same inspectorate is responsible for primary as well as Basic education. A large percentage of the inspectors is Basic trained. The services of voluntary organisations and local bodies are also utilised in the administration of Basic education in urban areas.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education is imparted through following types of institutions

- (1) two-class junior high with Classes V and VI,
- (2) four-class junior high with Classes V-VIII,
- (3) junior Basic schools with Classes I-V,
- (4) senior Basic schools with Classes VI-VII,
- (5) high schools with classes V-X and
- (6) higher secondary schools with either Classes V-XI or Classes IX-XI.

The most important steps taken in the field of secondary education after partition, were (1) the introduction of the new grant-in-aid system under which the high schools were classified under four categories according to their roll-strength, the government undertaking to meet the entire deficit of a school on its fulfilling certain conditions with regard to the number, qualifications and pay scales of the teachers employed there, and (2), the establishment of the Board of Secondary Education in 1951 for the regulation, control and development of secondary education in West Bengal. The highly democratic set-up of the board, however, proved to be unworkable and on the 11th May, 1954, the board was superseded by government for reasons of inefficiency and maladministration and an administrator was appointed to take charge of the board and its functions, pending its reorganisation on the lines of the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission. The board has no inspectorate of its own. The departmental inspectors supervise and inspect the work of secondary schools. The board gives them recognition and grants on the recommendation of the Education Directorate which again is based on the reports of its inspectors.

Senior Basic schools are controlled by the Education Directorate. In these schools the teaching of curricular subjects according to the syllabus prescribed by the Board of Secondary Education (for Classes VI-VIII) is followed, as far as practicable, through

productive crafts. So far as junior high schools are concerned, the Department gives recognition while the board gives grants on the recommendation of the D.P.I. But from Class VI upwards the board's syllabus and curriculum are followed, the departmental syllabus for the primary (Basic) stage extending upto Class V. The board recommends text-books for Classes VI and above and conducts the School Final Examination for high schools and the Higher Secondary Examination for higher secondary schools. It is the board that has accorded permission to a number of high schools for being up-graded into higher secondary schools with Humanities or with diversified courses on the approval of the Directorate of Education.

All recognised high schools and higher secondary schools, both government and non-government (including un-aided) are thus under the control of the board. Except the development grants, i.e., grants in connection with the upgrading of schools (which are paid by the Education Directorate direct to the managing committees) and government dearness allowances (which are paid through district inspectors), all other grants are paid through the board. It may be noted, that while the Board of Secondary Education exercises general supervision and control over high schools and higher secondary schools, their internal management is left to managing committees.

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGIATE EDUCATION

Of the five universities¹ in West Bengal, the Visva-Bharati at Santiniketan is managed by the central government and the state government has practically nothing to do with it. The state governor is the *pradhana* of this university.

The relations between the other universities and the state government and the Education Department are indicated in the Acts of the state legislature which led to their incorporation as universities. All of them are practically autonomous, statutory bodies within certain limitations. As they receive grants from the State, they are under certain obligations. For example, Jadavpur University has to submit every year its budget to the state government for approval, the annual accounts of Calcutta University are subject to such examination and audit as the state government may direct and the annual grants are provided when the audit report is satisfactory; Burdwan and Kalyani universities have to submit copies of their budgets as passed by them and the audited accounts together with copies of the audit report to the chancellor and the state government.

In the case of Jadavpur University, the President of the Indian Union is the chancellor. In the case of the other three universities, the Governor of the State is the

¹ *Supra*, pp. 540-41.

ex-officio chancellor who appoints the vice-chancellor in consultation with the Education Minister (in the case of the Calcutta University, from a panel of three persons recommended by the syndicate). A statute passed by the senate shall have no validity until it is approved by the chancellor (in consultation with the Education Minister, in the case of Calcutta University). The chancellor has some other powers. The Education Secretary acts as the chancellor's secretary in matters relating to these universities.

The state government has the right to inspect, but while in the case of the Calcutta University, purely academic activities of the university have been exempted, in the case of the new universities of Burdwan and Kalyani, "examinations, teaching and other work conducted or done by the University" are also open to inspection. Many educationists construe this as an undesirable curbing of the academic freedom of universities. But it is almost certain that there will be hardly any occasion to exercise this right on the part of the government in the new set-up.

All colleges for general education and almost all colleges for professional education, viz., education, engineering and technology, medicine, veterinary science, agriculture, commerce, law, etc. with the exception of Basic training colleges and some non-basic training colleges for undergraduate women (which are either government managed or sponsored), colleges of arts and crafts and colleges of physical education (both government managed or private) are affiliated to universities. Government colleges are directly under the control of the Director of Public Instruction and the principals are responsible to him. Members of the staff are government servants belonging to different categories of West Bengal Educational Services and are subject to the Government Servants' Conduct Rules.

The privately managed colleges fall under three categories according to the financial aid received by them and to the degrees of control exercised over them by the state government, viz., (1) government sponsored colleges; (2) government aided colleges; and (3) other colleges. Of the 125 colleges for general education, 14 are government managed, 43 sponsored, and the rest include both aided and unaided colleges.

Sponsored colleges are wholly financed by government but the members of the staff are not state servants. They have prescribed scales of pay but do not enjoy the benefit of pensions. These colleges are managed by their own governing bodies subject to certain conditions laid down by the state government. The powers of appointment, discharge, dismissal or reduction of pay, i. e. of the teaching staff, confirmation of all permanent appointments after the period of probation, are to be exercised subject to the approval of

the Education Directorate. The budget of a sponsored college also needs government approval. All proposals involving financial liability should be submitted to government first for approval.

Aided colleges are partly financed by government and their governing bodies have greater freedom than those of the sponsored colleges. But in their case also, the teaching staff has to be approved by the D.P.I. and all changes in the staff whether by appointment or dismissal must be notified to the Education Directorate.

The grant-in-aid rules for colleges as laid down in the Bengal Education Code apply to aided colleges including sponsored colleges. Every aided college shall make arrangements for the annual audit of its accounts by an independent auditor or accountant appointed by the governing body and approved by the D.P.I. and duly submit the annual audit report to the D.P.I. Every aided college, together with its accounts and records, shall be open to inspection by the Director or any officer deputed by him.

- Government has practically no control over the unaided colleges. Now that the majority of them are coming (and ultimately all of them will come) under the University Grants Commission's Scheme and the state government is giving not only matching grants to these colleges but also grants towards meeting the deficit on account of phased reduction of roll-strength (specially in the case of the seven big colleges of Calcutta), it is likely that they too will have to conform to some of the grant-in-aid rules, i.e., inspection of accounts and the submission of annual audit reports to the Education Directorate.

Previously, government approval was required for the affiliation of a college or for the change of regulations or syllabus, but under the new Act it is no longer required. In academic matters, the Calcutta University is now fully autonomous. In the case of affiliated colleges, both government and private, the academic control is exercised by the university. Each affiliated college, in the case of the Calcutta University, furnishes such returns, reports and other information as the syndicate may require to enable them to judge the efficiency of the college. Every college is inspected once a year and at such other time as the syndicate may direct.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.—Most of the technical and industrial schools in West Bengal were controlled and some are still controlled by the Department of Commerce and Industries. The junior technical schools, the polytechnics, the Bengal Engineering College

at Sibpur, and technical sections attached to the schools for the physically handicapped are under the control of the Education Department.

Since November, 1949, a special administrative and inspecting staff has been attached to the Directorate of Education for the supervision of technical education upto the undergraduate level. The State Council of Technical and Engineering Education of which the Chief Inspector, Technical Education, is the *ex-officio* secretary, started functioning in 1950. Technical institutions other than those at the university level are under its control and jurisdiction. This Council prescribes the courses of studies, lays down the conditions for recognition and holds examinations for technical schools.

There are a good many technical schools which are monotecnic or industrial schools, imparting technical instruction in particular industries like weaving, spinning, carpet-making and tailoring. They are located at different centres within the State. Several industrial training centres offer courses for vocational and technical trades for various durations. All of these institutions and most of the industrial schools are under the control of the Department of Commerce and Industries. The same Department directly administers the following institutions: (1) Bengal Tanning Institute, Calcutta; (2) Bengal Textile Institute, Serampur; (3) Bengal Textile (Silk) Institute, Berhampur; (4) Bengal Ceramic Institute, Calcutta; and (5) Industrial Research Laboratory, Calcutta. The Survey Institute at Bandel is a state-managed institution and is under the control of the Directorate of Land Records and Surveys.

Besides the B. E. College at Sibpur which is a degree college for engineering and technology and is affiliated to the Calcutta University, there are two other higher engineering institutions in West Bengal—the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, which is under the direct management of the Central Government and the College of Engineering and Technology, Jadavpur, which is now coextensive with the Faculty of Engineering of the University of Jadavpur.

There are two other privately managed colleges at Dum Dum, viz., the Air Technical Training Institute, and the College of Aero-nautical Services. The Marine Engineering College at Behala, Calcutta, is managed by the Central Government. The Institute of Jute Technology, Calcutta, which trains supervisory staff of Jute Mills, is one of the colleges affiliated to the Calcutta University. A regional engineering college of the degree level has been started recently. It is located at Durgapur and is affiliated to the Burdwan University and is managed by Central Government.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION. — There are two agricultural schools and two agricultural colleges in the State. All of them are under the direct management of the Department of Agriculture & Food Production of West Bengal Government. These will now be affiliated to the Kalyani University. Similarly, the Bengal Veterinary College managed by the Department of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Sciences will also become a constituent college of the same university.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION. — There are more than 70 commercial schools, all non-government, which impart commercial education at the school level. They are all recognised by the Board of Management of the Goenka College of Commerce and Business Administration. Commercial subjects are optional in the Intermediate Examination of the University of Calcutta. Some of the colleges for general education also provide for the B.Com. course and the University College of Commerce conducts the M. Com. course. The commerce classes are generally held in the morning or evening. The only exception is the Goenka College, Calcutta. It is a full-fledged government college and has both day and evening departments. The day department provides teaching facilities for: (a) Diploma Course equivalent to the Intermediate Standard, (2) the B. Com. Course of the Calcutta University and (3) the National Diploma Course in Commerce of the All-India Council for Technical Education.

FINE ARTS AND CRAFTS. — Besides the Kala Bhavana or the College of Fine Arts and Crafts at Santiniketan, there are two other recognised institutions of fine arts. Both are in Calcutta. The Government College of Arts and Crafts is under the Education Department and awards its own diplomas and certificates. The Indian Art School at Dharamtalla is a government aided institution. The diploma and certificates awarded by the governing body of the college is recognised by government.

MUSIC, DANCE AND DRAMATICS. — The Sangeet Bhavana or the College of Music and Dancing under the Visva-Bharati University and the Academy of Dance, Drama and Music (Sangeet Bhawana) at Jorasanko in Calcutta, a government sponsored institution which has been transformed into "Tagore University" (for study and cultivation of dance, dramatics, music, art, crafts, and other cultural subjects as its special features) provide courses in these subjects.

The Calcutta University has a Faculty of Fine Arts and Music and there are a number of privately managed music colleges. Most of them are situated in Calcutta, and two of them have been affiliated to the Calcutta University. Some of the music schools and colleges are aided institutions.

HOME SCIENCE. — The Viharilal Mitra College of Home Science of the Calcutta University, is the only institution of its kind in West Bengal. It provides a three-year degree course in Home Science. It also conducts two training courses—one leading to an undugadecente diploma and the other to a post-graduate diploma in domestic science.

MEDICAL EDUCATION. — Medical education, as has already been pointed out, is administered by the Department of Medicine and Health Services. Besides the recently started Post-Graduate College of Medicine of the Calcutta University, there are 14 colleges. Of these five are state managed and the rest are government-aided. Except the two *ayurvedic* colleges, all are affiliated to universities. There is one centrally managed institution, viz., the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health. It provides facilities for training in public health work and research in associated fields. There is now no recognised medical school of the allopathic system. The few medical schools receiving government grants are homeopathic and *ayurvedic* institutions. Government also maintains a pharmacy training centre at Jalpaiguri. There is provision for training in nursing and midwifery in several hospitals mostly attached to medical colleges. These centres are either managed or aided by government.

LEGAL EDUCATION. Legal education is imparted at the Calcutta University College of Law and the Surendra Nath Law College, Calcutta. The latter is a privately managed institution.

TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION. Along with the reorganisation and development of primary and secondary education, the Department of Education extended facilities for teacher education. It is fully conscious of the fact that teachers hold the key position in every scheme of education.

The University of Calcutta has a Faculty of Education and there is provision for the degree of B.T. and the post-graduate degrees of M.A./M.Sc. in Education. The Teachers' Training Department of the Calcutta University, the training departments of the two Calcutta colleges (Loreto House and the Scottish Churches College) and nine teachers' training colleges (3 government managed, 5 sponsored and 1 government) prepare graduates for the B.T. degree. Of these colleges, the Hooghli Government Training College is now under the jurisdiction of the Burdwan University and the Kalyani Teachers' Training College is going to be a constituent college of the Kalyani University. The Vinaya-Bhavan (teachers' college), which is under the Visva-Bharati University, prepares students for the B. Ed. degree.

Tuition in all the nine colleges is free, and it is in most of the teachers' training institutions in the State. There is also a liberal provision for stipends in all these insti-

tutions and deputed teachers from recognised schools are paid their salaries and approved allowances.

There is only one post-graduate Basic training college for graduates at Banipur and it is co-educational and government managed. There are 4 Basic training colleges for undergraduates, a large number of junior Basic training colleges and primary training schools for matriculates, and eight senior training schools for matriculate girls only. There are also a few kindergarten and nursery training colleges, which are open to undergraduate women and offer a two-year course. These schools and colleges follow the courses and syllabi prepared by the Education Department and send their candidates for departmental examinations. These institutions are either government managed, sponsored or aided.

The Training Board of the Education Department acts in an advisory capacity in matters relating to training in the above institutions. The Calcutta Corporation has its own teachers' training institute offering one year's junior and senior training for teachers. The two-year M.A. and M.Sc. courses in education are run by the University Department of Education and the government-managed David Hare Training College, Calcutta, jointly.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — While realising the importance of pre-primary education for children of the age-group 3-5, the Government of West Bengal does not think it practicable to undertake the entire responsibility of pre-primary education of infants at present. The government is, however, helping voluntary agencies in starting and maintaining nursery schools where it is convinced that they will be run on right lines.

There are two state-managed nursery schools including one model nursery school at Hastings House, Alipore, where the Institute of Education for Women, West Bengal (a non-basic college preparing for B.T. examination) is housed. There are also about 40 privately managed nursery schools in the State. Most of them receive government aid. It may also be noted that a number of secondary schools, including a government school for girls, in Calcutta, have kindergarten and nursery classes attached to them.

SOCIAL (ADULT) EDUCATION. — Adult education in the narrow sense of making the illiterate literate by arranging literacy classes for them has given place to social education, i.e., as complete an education as is practicable in the case of adults. The scheme for Social (Adult) Education was formally launched in West Bengal with effect from the 15th August, 1949. A State Advisory Board, consisting of distinguished educationists and experts, was set up to advise the government on matters relating to the promotion of adult

education in West Bengal. The Board appears to be defunct, but in each district there is a social education advisory committee with the district social education officer as its secretary. The committee gives advice to the district staff and also suggests measures for the expansion of social education in the district and distributes government grants and subsidies to libraries and folk-recreational institutions. Also each village or township where an adult education centre has been started has a local committee.

The valuable services of voluntary organizations such as the Ramkrishna Mission, Bengal Bratachari Society, Nari Siksha Samiti, Visva-Bharati Rural Reconstruction Institute and others are approached for cooperating in the government plan for the removal of illiteracy and the propagation of social education.

For implementing the scheme properly, the Director of Public Instruction is assisted by the Chief Inspector, Social Education and his deputy, the Assistant Chief Social Education Officer. Under the Chief Inspector, there are district social education officers who organise and supervise social education activities in districts. The principals of the two *janata* colleges are also under his administrative control. In the development blocks there are two social education organisers, one man and one woman. They implement the social education programme under the Community Development Project. They are further given technical guidance and direction by the district social education officers.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION Physical education in West Bengal, which forms a part of the Youth Welfare Scheme for the State, is controlled and directed by the Chief Inspector, Physical Education and Youth Welfare Officer of the State. He is assisted by district organisers whose main function is to organise physical education and help local organisations in promoting games and sports in their respective districts. These organisers and most of the graduate physical instructors were themselves trained in the Government College of Physical Education, Calcutta. This college was previously meant for male graduates only. At present, a few women also are admitted. It awards its own diplomas and certificates which are recognised by government. The certificate course is open to I.A. passed youngmen.

An Inspector of Physical Education (Women) attached to the Education Directorate does some part-time instructional work at the Institute of Education for Women and supervises and guides physical training and welfare work in government and aided institutions for women in the State.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION.—Reference has been made earlier to the inspection of girls' high schools, which is done by the Chief Inspector, Women's Education with the

assistance of district inspectresses of schools. Primary schools, which are in many cases coeducational, are inspected by sub-inspectors who may be either men or women. The Chief Inspector, Women's Education, looks after special interests of the girls at the post-primary stage of school education.

Of the eight district inspectresses and additional district inspectresses, two are meant for Calcutta, one for the district of Twenty-four Parganas, and the remaining district inspectresses have to look after the remaining districts, each being responsible for two or more districts.

ANGLO-INDIAN EDUCATION. Special arrangements for the education of the Anglo-Indians, who are now citizens of Free India, were guaranteed by the Constitution for a period of ten years, in view of the special circumstances such as their mother-tongue and their way of living. At the same time as a condition to the grant-in-aid, under the Act of the Constitution, Anglo-Indian schools in West Bengal were required to reserve 40 per cent of the places for Indians. In spite of the higher fees charged by these schools, because of better accommodation, spacious play-grounds, good arrangements for games, sports and other extra-curricular activities and better individual care, many Indians, who can afford to pay, send their children to these schools. As a result, at present more than 60 per cent of the students of these schools are Indians other than Anglo-Indians.

Most of these schools are privately managed, the majority receiving aid from government, while two at Kurseong, viz. the Victoria Boys' School and the Dow Hill Girls' School are directly managed by the State, and a few schools are maintained by the Railways. The control and supervision of all these schools, both government and private, are vested in the State Board for Anglo-Indian Education which works in close collaboration with the Inter-State Board for the Education of Anglo-Indians. The Inspector of Anglo-Indian Schools in West Bengal, an officer of the Education Directorate, is the *ex-officio* Secretary of the State Board.

ORIENTAL STUDIES. — On the basis of the recommendations of a committee appointed by the state government in 1948 for suggesting ways and means for the improvement and expansion of oriental studies, the government has opened a Research Section in the Government Sanskrit College, Calcutta. It is under the charge of 4 distinguished professors, each having one research assistant and a few honorary research scholars under him. The committee also reorganised the private *tols* in the different parts of the State. There is a *Tol* Section attached to the Sanskrit College. The most important change in education of the *tols* is that each new *tol* will have two trained graduates for teaching English, History, Civics, Geography and Mathematics.

The Sanskrit Siksha Parishad, an organisation recognised by the State holds the (i) Adya, (ii) Madhya, and (iii) Tirtha (degree) examinations in different branches of Sanskrit. There are two inspectors of *tois*. They inspect *tois* and fix their grants.

For the administration of the *madrasahs*, there is the Madrasah Board. It has a few experts in Islamic Studies as its members. The Chief Inspector, Secondary Education, is the Chairman of the Board.

BACKWARD CLASS EDUCATION. For promoting the education of the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, other educationally backward classes and Muslims, there is a non-lapsing fund to which annual contributions are made by the government. Special educational facilities and privileges have been given to these categories of students, both by the reservation of a number of stipends for them at all stages of education and by the establishment of special schools for them in areas where they dominate. Besides stipends, book grants, examination fees, seat rents in college hostels, grant-in-aid to special schools and also to *madrasahs*, capital grants for various purposes, provident fund contribution for teachers of *madrasahs*, scholarships on the results of the *Madrasah* Examinations, etc. are also paid out of the above mentioned fund. The Special Officer, Backward Education, assists the Director of Public Instruction in the management of the fund.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED. Education of the handicapped is imparted through two types of institutions, viz. (1) institutions for the mentally handicapped, and (2) institutions for the physically handicapped. There is only one institution, for the mentally handicapped children viz, Bodhi Preth. Scientific treatment and training are made available, as far as practicable, through expert psychologists and psychiatrists. It is a government-aided institution.

There are two different types of institutions for the physically handicapped, viz., (1) schools for the blind, and (2) schools for the deaf-mute. These are all government-aided. The schools for the blind aim at a thorough elementary and high school education equivalent to that afforded to normal children. They also impart vocational education in various crafts. Almost the same is the case with schools for the deaf-mute.

EDUCATION OF THE DELINQUENT CHILDREN.—There are two institutions, viz., Berhampore Borstal School and Berhampur Juvenile Central Jail. Both are government institutions and are under the administration of the Home Department. The first institution will be replaced by a composite school, combining the functions of reformatory, industrial and borstal Schools.

FACILITIES FOR EDUCATION OF DISPLACED STUDENTS. — The provision of proper educational facilities for refugee students from East Pakistan has been a problem of great magnitude to the Government of West Bengal. In the Relief and Rehabilitation Department of the state government, there is an education officer who with the help of two assistant officers administers the funds placed at the disposal of the department by Government of India for the education of the refugees.

Many of the existing educational institutions have been given loans or grants or both so as to enable them to extend proper facilities to refugee students. New educational institutions have been established in areas where there was a concentration of refugees but with little or no educational facility. For example, the government is sponsoring about 1,200 primary schools in urban areas where primary education is not free. Poor refugee students are given tuition fees, book-grants and stipends. In primary and secondary schools free tuition is provided for refugee students.

SOCIAL WELFARE — The control of all orphanages of Bengal was transferred from the Revenue Department to the Education Department in April 1944. So an Orphanage Section remained attached to the Education Directorate even after the partition. In 1950 again 18 destitutes were transferred to homes of the Education Department from the Relief Department and in 1954 the name of the Orphanage Section was changed to Social Welfare Section. It is administered by the Chief Inspector, Social Welfare, who is assisted by the Inspector and the Assistant Inspector, Social Welfare.

Famine orphans, riot orphans, unclaimed and abandoned children, displaced (refugee) orphans and non-refugee destitute (residential and non-residential) are generally admitted to the Welfare Homes. There are 9 state welfare homes, two exclusively for girls, two for a mixed population of tender age, and the rest for boys only. There are more than 50 aided homes. The destitute homes give asylum to women of different ages and small boys up to 12 years of age.

All the state welfare homes, excepting two, are provided either with 2-class or with 4-class junior high schools besides primary schools for general education. Meritorious boys and girls are sent to outside schools for further secondary education. Arrangements for vocational training, for both boys and girls in various useful crafts form the special feature of these homes. Those boys who do not evince aptitude for general education are, however, transferred at an age of 14 to 16 to training centres for technical training, both as paid and unpaid apprentices. Arrangements for general education, up to the School Final Standard and vocational training in different crafts are also in existence in almost all the welfare and destitute homes aided by government.

N.C.C. AND A.C.C. — The National Cadet Corps is administered in West Bengal by the Department of Education through a special officer. The link with the army is maintained by one circle officer, who is in charge of all units in the Senior and Junior divisions of the Corps and helps the State by giving technical advice regarding administration, discipline and other matters. Besides the N.C.C., the Auxiliary Cadet Corps Scheme has been put in operation in this State.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES. Of the social organisations which are encouraged by the Education Department, mention may be made of the Boy Scouts' Association, the Girl Guides' Association, the Junior Red Cross Society, St. John Ambulance Society and Bratachari Society. They aim at training school boys and girls for good citizenship.

The Himalayan Mountaineering Institute, Darjeeling, which is sponsored jointly by the Government of India and the Government of West Bengal is affording opportunities to the youths of this State and the rest of the country for character training through self-discipline, team work, adventures, hardships and risks.

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY SOURCES. — The expenditure on education in West Bengal is quite naturally much higher than before. In 1936-37 the total revenue of Bengal (with an area of 77,521 sq. miles and a population of about 52,32,000) was Rs. 11,94,83,000 and the total expenditure from government sources on education was Rs. 1,41,12,117. And thus 11.6 per cent of the total State revenue was spent on education.

In 1958-59 the total revenue of West Bengal was Rs. 80,38,70,000 and the total expenditure on education from state revenues was Rs. 15,11,21,187. It means that the expenditure on education in the United Bengal from the state revenues was much higher than even the total revenue of undivided Bengal. The expenditure on education was also proportionately higher, viz., 18.8 per cent of the total revenue of the State. Add to this the grant for education from the Central Government, viz., Rs. 2,32,32,244 which itself is much higher than the total expenditure on education from government sources in 1936-37.

In 1958-59, the total expenditure of Rs. 28,47,97,680 on education in West Bengal was met from different sources in following way:

TABLE 78

Expenditure on Education by Sources, West Bengal, 1958-59

Source	Amount (in rupees)	Percentage
Central Government Funds ..	2,32,32,241	8.1
State Government Funds ..	15,14,24,187	53.2
District Board Funds ..	41,68,810	1.5
Municipal Board Funds ..	45,71,908	1.6
Fees ..	7,73,65,256	27.1
Endowments ..	67,18,609	2.4
Other Sources ..	1,73,16,666	6.1
Total	28,47,97,680	100.0

If we study the percentages of expenditure from different sources in different years for Undivided Bengal with those for West Bengal in 1958-59, we shall at once notice the difference.

TABLE 79

Percentage Expenditure on Education by Sources, Bengal and West Bengal, 1927-59

Sources	1927*	1937*	1959**
Central Government Funds ..	—	—	8.1
State Government Funds ..	37.2	34.0	53.2
District Board Funds ..	1.1	1.2	1.5
Municipal Board Funds ..	1.6	3.9	1.6
Fees ..	40.8	44.9	27.1
Other Sources ..	16.3	15.9	8.5

For Undivided Bengal.

** For West Bengal only.

The high percentage (61.3) of government contributions towards the cost of education in the State has decreased the necessity of depending on income from fees specially in the case of privately managed institutions. Most of the private institutions now receive aid from government. This is what should be in a welfare state. Other sources including endowments are now not so important as before.

GRANT-IN-AID RULES. – There are grant-in-aid rules, different for different types of institutions, to ensure that public money spent on an institution is properly utilised. Reference has already been made to some of the rules in regard to colleges. In regard to other institutions also, the underlying principles are the same, viz., (1) proper accounts are to be maintained, (2) these will be open to inspection by the D.P.I or his representatives, (3) statement of audited accounts is to be presented to the Education Directorate annually, (4) there should be a properly constituted managing committee or governing body in which there will be a government nominee, and (5) teachers are to be paid according to prescribed scales of pay, etc.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

As in other states the Community Development Projects programme was started on October, 2, 1952. The programme includes in addition to improved cultivation, better homes, better roads, better health, and better education for the people. Naturally, the scheme for social (adult) education is being implemented in close collaboration with the Community Development Department.

During 1958-59, the number of development blocks was 135. Of the full contingent of 276 social organisers, 257 were actually working in different blocks. Although the Education Directorate is responsible for recruitment and administrative control of the S.E.O.s, for administrative convenience and facility their services have been placed partially under the control of the block development officers. In 1958-59, the number of government literacy centres in the block areas was 1,114 and of 75,000 adults attending the centres 45,000 attained literacy. Some schools for general education, mainly primary and a few secondary, in the N.E.S. and C.D. Project Blocks, have received grants for the improvement of their buildings from the Development Department. Primary schools are being reconditioned by improving the school houses and equipment with special grants, for their future development into full-fledged junior Basic schools.

While all this is good, as has been pointed out by the Chief Inspector, Social Education, West Bengal, more can and should be done in the blocks for effectively implementing the primary education scheme.¹ His suggestion that the jurisdiction of the sub-inspectors of schools should be made coextensive with the block and that the two social education organisers should work in cooperation with and under his guidance and that within the limited sphere of the block the services of the S.E.O.s should be *solely* utilized in implementing the educational schemes, deserves serious consideration,

¹ *Amrita Bazar Patrika*, 10-7 -60

The establishment of the two Basic training colleges, one at Saktigarh Development Block (Burdwan) and another at Mohammad Bazar Development Block (Birbhum) indicates the increasing interest being taken by the Development Department in the general education of the children of the State

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

All the five universities in the State and the Board of Secondary Education are almost autonomous statutory bodies. Of the 1 research institutes, only one is managed by the Central Government. In 1958-59 of the 114 colleges for general education, only 14 were managed by the state government of the 44 colleges for professional education 2 were managed by the Central Government and 18 by the state government and of the 8 colleges for special education, only 2 were managed by government. The rest of the colleges were managed by private bodies. But for the increase in the number of colleges, mostly for general education, the position to date remains almost the same.

Similarly, of the 544 higher secondary schools only 34 were government managed, of 1,244 high schools only 7 were government schools, of 94 senior Basic schools only 16 were run directly by government. Of 1,975 junior high schools 88 of 1,078 junior Basic 42, of 25,891 primary schools, 1,032 were managed by government. Of 42 nursery schools, only 2 were run by government and of 315 schools for professional education, 88 schools and of 4,986 schools for special education 2,249 schools including 2,231 for adults were managed by the state government.

This shows how largely education in the State is in the hands of the people themselves. In many cases institutions have grown up through private enterprise both individual and collective. The history of education in Bengal and now West Bengal is replete with instances of self-sacrifice, benevolence and an urge to satisfy the hunger for education of the people, on the part of individuals sometimes poor teachers and also organisations, both religious and secular.

Under the new schemes of educational reorganisation and development, the State is taking more initiative than before. It has set up a few schools and colleges of its own since the attainment of independence but the general policy is to encourage organisations, in many cases religious, to open educational institutions either on sponsored or grant-in-aid basis, in areas where educational facilities are not adequate.

In the case of primary schools, new constructions or any major improvements of buildings are mostly left to private effort and local philanthropy. One of the conditions which must be fulfilled before a Basic school is sanctioned for any area is that the local

people must provide 2 acres of land and Rs 4,000 in cash or kind. Building grants to secondary schools are sanctioned by the Board of Secondary Education, on the recommendation of the DPI on the basis that the schools concerned should meet from local sources two-thirds of the total estimated cost for each project.

Under the Local Development Works Programme, the private bodies are required to raise at least the same amount as sanctioned by government. These facts are enough to show that even now private enterprise is an important factor in the educational administration in the State.

MANAGING BODIES

One of the conditions of recognition of educational institutions is that the school or the college should have a properly constituted managing committee or a governing body. This applies to the case of government institutions also, but the managing committees or governing bodies of these institutions function more or less as advisory bodies. As regards private institutions they have wide powers. The aided institutions (including sponsored ones) have to conform to certain conditions laid down under the grant-in-aid rules. In the case of secondary schools the constitution of the managing committee has to be approved by the Board of Secondary Education and in the case of affiliated colleges by respective universities. In the case of government institutions and sponsored or aided schools and colleges, further approval of the Education Directorate is required. It may, however, be noted that the authority of the head of the institution cannot be interfered with internal matters purely academic.

By way of illustration, below are given some important extracts from the 'Rules for Management of Non-Government High Schools including Aided Schools' recently published by Government of West Bengal.

3. The register of eligible voters shall contain the names of (i) all guardians whose names are entered as such in the Admission Register, (ii) founders of the school, (iii) donors, (iv) registered medical practitioners of the locality, and such benefactors and persons belonging to the locality and interested in education as may from time to time be approved by the committee.

4. Persons so registered as eligible voters shall elect from among themselves to the committee not more than nine members.

In the case of aided schools one member of the committee shall be nominated by the Education Department such member being regarded as holding the qualifications of a donor for the purpose of the third paragraph of the rules.

5. The members of the teaching staff shall elect two members from amongst themselves to the committee.

The Head Master shall be an *ex-officio* member.

8. The committee shall ordinarily not exceed twelve members as specified above including president, vice-president, if any, and the secretary of the committee who shall be elected by the members of the committee ordinarily from among themselves. If the headmaster is not elected secretary, he shall be the assistant secretary.

24. The secretary shall be in charge of the invested funds, title-deeds and other legal documents belonging to the school. All other papers relating to the school shall be available at any time for inspection after due notice to members of the committee or any person authorised by the Board of Secondary Education or the committee.

In the case of aided schools, all papers and records, referred to above, shall be similarly available for inspection by the officers of the Education Department or any person duly authorised for the purpose by the Government.

25. The committee shall have the power of appointing and removing teachers and other members of the staff, granting promotion and increments, leave and free studentships, managing school funds, framing the annual report, dealing with all schemes of development and such other matters, as are brought before it for consideration. Free studentships shall ordinarily be given with the consent of the headmaster.

26. In the case of aided schools, the power of the committee of appointing and removing teachers, granting promotion and increment shall be exercised subject to the approval of the Board of Secondary Education who will consider the recommendation of the D.P.I., West Bengal, before granting approval in the matter. The power under this clause to grant leave and award free-studentships shall be exercised in accordance with the rules framed by the Board of Secondary Education in this behalf.

LOCAL BODIES AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The district school boards in the rural areas and municipalities in the case of urban areas are the local bodies, which play prominent part specially in the field of primary (Basic) education. There are certain Union Boards that take some interest in the cause of primary education. The amount spent on education from the revenue of local boards, in 1958-59, was Rs. 87,40,718 of which Rs. 73,56,174 was recurring and Rs. 13,84,544 was non-recurring. Of Rs. 87,40,718, Rs. 11,68,540 was spent from the district board funds and Rs. 45,71,908 came from the municipal board funds.

The district boards are mainly concerned with primary education. Of 1,975 junior high schools in 1958-59 only 30 and of 981 schools for oriental studies only one were under the management of district boards, while out of 1,078 junior Basic, 3,893 single teacher primary and 21,998 other primary schools in West Bengal 858 and 2,789 and 17,633 respectively were under the control of district boards. The municipal boards managed

3 higher secondary, 2 high, 6 junior high, 15 junior Basic, 6 single-teacher primary and 465 other primary schools and 10 schools for adults. The control of the local bodies over primary schools is exercised mainly through the conditions attached to grant-in-aid to the schools.

It is the district school board, which administers primary education in rural areas. The proceeds of the primary education cess in each district are paid by the collector to the district primary education fund of the district. In addition, the government also makes grants to the district school board by way of subvention to enable them to meet their expenses.

Municipalities maintain a few higher secondary as well as high schools for girls only. The Calcutta Corporation has introduced free and compulsory primary education in 5 wards. It has its own inspectorate. Both the district boards and the municipalities spend considerable sums of money for scholarships and other financial concessions to students.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

Soon after coming into office, the Government of West Bengal set up several committees to advise it in different fields of education with a view to securing better organisation, increased efficiency and larger output. References have already been made to some of them in earlier sections, and sufficient indication has been given of the results of their recommendations. The most important among them was the School Education Committee constituted in 1948 with the Hon'ble Minister for Education as its Chairman for the purpose of defining the objectives of both primary and secondary education and suggesting improvements in the organisation, curricula and allied problems. Most of the recommendations of this Committee have been accepted by government. In the field of school education, the state government has been guided by this Committee's Report together with those of the Secondary Education (Mudaliar) Commission's.

Having accepted the recommendation of the School Education Committee that primary (junior Basic) education should not only be free but also universal and compulsory, the government enacted amendments to the Act of 1930 and introduced in 1950 a ten-year scheme for making primary education free, universal and compulsory in rural areas. The old traditional type of primary education is being gradually replaced by a craft-centred, activity-biased system of education which has for its objective the development of the personality of child in addition to making him acquainted with his physical and social environments.

The Committee's opinion regarding the objective of secondary education as a "Self-contained system of life-regarding education, suited to the varying aptitudes, abilities and needs of adolescent pupils" was endorsed by the state government and the central government's scheme of upgrading high schools to higher secondary schools with uni or multi lateral streams found ready acceptance in West Bengal. Perhaps this State has the largest number of multipurpose secondary schools in India.

As regards collegiate education, all the universities in the State have introduced three-year degree courses, and of 120 degree colleges for general education 94 colleges have been covered during the Second Plan by this scheme of the University Grants Commission.

In the field of technical education, some reorganisation and a great deal of expansion have been effected. On the recommendation of the Advisory Committee for Technical Education appointed in 1949, the control of technical schools was transferred from the Department of Industries to the Department of Education. Two Boards for Junior and Senior Technical schools were formed. This Advisory Committee later became the State Council for Technical Education. It may also be noted that both the engineering colleges in the State, viz., the Bengal Engineering College, Shibpur and the College of Engineering and Technology at Jadavpur, have been reorganised and developed considerably.

The Social (Adult) Education Scheme launched in 1949 was based on the recommendations of a committee, which was appointed by Government in 1948, for advising it about the lines on which adult education should be promoted and organised. There has been great progress in other fields of education.

Naturally, the staff of the Education Department (Secretariat and the Education Directorate), the inspectorate and the teaching and ministerial staff have been strengthened with a view to implementing the various schemes. Some of these schemes had been taken up even before independence and some immediately afterwards with developmental grants from the Centre, but many other schemes have been taken up under the five-year plans. It is not possible to describe the schemes within such a narrow compass. But an idea can be had of the development in the various fields of education from Table 80.

TABLE 80

Progress of Education in West Bengal, 1947-48 to 1958-59
(Institutions)

Sr. No.	Type	1947-48	1951-52	1958-59
Recognised*				
1.	University	1	2	3
2	Research Institutions		3	4
3.	Board of Secondary Education	—	1	1
4.	Colleges (including Professional & Special Colleges)	77	115	170
5	High Schools	858	1,168	1,758
"	Middle Schools	1,045	1,299	2,043*
7	Primary Schools	13,950	15,001	25,212
8	Junior Basic Schools	—	113	1,078
9	Nursery Schools	(Not shown separately)	11	41
10	Schools for Professional and Special Education	1,561	2,320	5,281
	Total	17,492	20,083	35,591
	Unrecognised Institutions (Schools)	163	334	756
	Grand Total	17,655	20,417	36,357

Includes 94 senior Basic schools

So far as the Second Five Year Plan is concerned, the position would be made clear from details the given in Table 81.

TABLE 81

Progress of Education, West Bengal, Second Five-Year Plan

Item	Number by the end of 1955-56	Estimated number by the end of 1960-61
<i>Institutions</i>		
Primary Schools including Junior Basic Schools . . .	23,081	27,471
Junior Basic Schools . . .	492	1,378
Middle Schools including Senior Basic Schools . . .	1,614	2,363
Senior Basic Schools	4	148
High Schools	1,486	1,275
Higher Secondary Schools . . .	—	135
Multipurpose Schools	70	450
<i>Enrolment in Different Classes</i>		
Classes I — V	23,67,404	28,52,000
Classes VI — VIII	3,64,217	4,99,860
Classes IX — XI	1,68,133	2,94,406
<i>Training of Teachers:</i>		
Enrolment in Training Schools (both Basic and non-basic)	1,732	4,960
Enrolment in Training Colleges (both Basic and non-basic).	591	2,705

At the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, the intake for graduate courses in engineering at the two colleges at Sibpur and Jadavpur has been increased to 430 and 370 respectively. In the field of social education, the various schemes have made considerable headway. Special mention may be made of literacy centres which numbered 3,101 by the end of 1958-59, making 86,459 adults literate during the year and the development of public libraries (643 were aided by government during the year), the comprehensive library service with the starting of the State Central Library feeding the district libraries, area libraries and rural libraries, benefiting more than 5 lakhs of readers.

The total expenditure on the First Five-Year Plan was Rs. 11.79 crores, with a commitment of Rs. 3.52 crores during 1960-61. The total estimated expenditure on the Second Five-Year Plan is Rs. 26.02 crores with a commitment of Rs. 3.68 crores (non-recurring) and Rs. 6.20 crores per annum (recurring).

From recent reports, we have some idea of the targets set by the West Bengal Government in the field of education during the third plan period. Out of the State's Rs. 341 crores outlay, Rs. 48 crores have been reserved for education. Eighty per cent of the children of the age-group 5 to 11, 40 per cent of the age-group 11 to 14 and about 25 per cent of the age-group 14 to 17 will be at schools. A sum of Rs. 21.48 crores has been earmarked for the introduction of free and compulsory education.

Improvement of the conditions of service of primary school teachers, introduction of special prizes and selection grade posts in secondary schools, upgrading 170 ordinary high schools with provision of teaching humanities and science in each of them, upgrading 50 per cent of the remaining 1,105 ordinary high schools into multipurpose schools, development of pre-primary (Basic) education, special provisions for scholarships and facilities to ensure additional enrolment of girls in primary and middle classes, increasing the present intake of existing training colleges of 2,705 by an additional number of 2,000 annually, special measures to draw more girls to schools, special amenities for women teachers, expansion schemes of the existing universities and the development of new universities, providing better opportunities for higher education to bright and poor students, liberal provision for higher education of girls, development of science studies in a more comprehensive manner, having three more engineering colleges with a capacity of 2,450 students to meet the growing demand of higher engineering, starting 8 more polytechnics to cover the districts where no such institutions are in existence now, further expansion of library service by opening 125 sub-divisional libraries and 750 village libraries during the third plan period and also developing the State Central Library on the latest model, are the highlights of the Plan.

With such bold plans as these, the State of West Bengal is well set on occupying the leading position in the field of education, in India, the position which Bengal once occupied not long ago.

The writer is grateful to the Education Directorate, West Bengal, for giving him every assistance in writing this Chapter.

INTRODUCTION

The Government of India is directly responsible for the education of Union Territories¹, viz., Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amendivi Islands, Manipur, Nagaland or Naga Hills, Tuensang Area, North-East Frontier Agency, Pondicherry, the former Portuguese Territories (Goa, Daman and Diu). A detailed description of the administrative set-up of Delhi and Tripura will be given in subsequent chapters.² A bird's eye-view of the administrative set-up in the remaining areas is presented in this chapter.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS

BACKGROUND. — The unit consists of two islands, though both form one district. It has an area of 3,215 square miles and a population of 73,438. It was a penal settlement till 1942, and has a truly cosmopolitan population.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF EDUCATION. Education in the islands was practically neglected during the British rule. Till 1947, there was no Education Department and the Deputy Commissioner of the islands was the chief education officer. He was also the President of the Education Advisory Committee and the Chairman of the High School Managing Committee.

During the second plan period, a committee under the chairmanship of the late Principal A. N. Basu was set up for suggesting measures for the reorganisation of education in the islands. As a result of the recommendations of this committee, primary education is being encouraged and all the primary schools are being converted into Basic institutions. Education upto the higher secondary stage is free in the territory. There are at present 74 primary schools, 2 middle schools, 3 higher secondary schools, 2 higher secondary multi-purpose schools, one teachers training school and one trade school.³ Of these 98.5 per cent are managed by the government and 1.5 per cent by aided private bodies. During 1958-59, the total expenditure on education was Rs. 5.39 lakhs.

¹ *Supra*, p. 53.

² *Infra*, Chapters XXX and XXXI.

³ All India Congress Committee. *The Fourteenth Year of Freedom*. New Delhi, Jantar Mantar Road, 1961. p. 406.

The government met 99.6 per cent of this expenditure, while the contribution from fees and other sources was 0.3 and 0.1 per cent respectively.¹ The average annual cost of educating a pupil in a high/higher secondary school, middle school and primary school respectively was Rs. 288.1, Rs. 84.0 and Rs. 75.5. The cost per capita of population was Rs. 9.1.

THE THIRD PLAN During 1958-59 educational facilities were available for the school-going children of the age-groups 6-11, 11-14 and 14-17 to the extent 38.7 per cent, 9.6 and 2.7 per cent respectively.² A sum of Rs. 57 lakhs has been ear-marked for education during the Third Plan.³ The provision made in the territory for universal, compulsory primary education leaves much to be desired. Only 24.3 per cent of primary teachers are trained as against 52.3 per cent of middle school teachers and 75.0 per cent in high/higher secondary schools. It is hoped that the programme of universal, compulsory and free primary education will be stepped up vigorously throughout the territory before the end of the third plan period. The curriculum of primary schools is the same as in West Bengal.

HIMACHAL PRADESH

BACKGROUND Himachal Pradesh was formed in April, 1948. It has an area of 10,579 sq. miles and a population of 1.59 lakhs (1961 census). The entire territory is divided into six districts viz. Bilaspur, Chamba, Kinnaur, Mohasau, Mandi and Sirmoor. Agriculture is the main occupation of the people.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP Education in the Himachal Pradesh is under the direct control of the Director of Education. He is also the *ex-officio* secretary to the Himachal Pradesh Administration for Education. He is concerned with all the branches of education — university, secondary, primary, recognition of schools, scholarships, planning and development. During 1959-60 the total expenditure on education amounted to Rs. 75,23,603.

On 15th of August, 1957, the Himachal Pradesh Territorial Council was set up. It has been entrusted with the entire responsibility of education up to the higher secondary stage. The Council is headed by a Principal Education Officer, who is assisted by the Registrar of Departmental Examinations, two inspectors of schools and six district inspectors of schools.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF EDUCATION. During 1958-59, the Pradesh had 1,257 educational institutions — art and science colleges (4), professional college (1), secondary

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59*, p. 112.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ Government of India, *Review of Education in India, 1947-61*. Delhi, Publications Division, 1961. p. 746.

schools (2), schools for vocational education (2), and schools for special education (67). Of these, 87.9 per cent were managed by the government, and 12.1 per cent by private bodies, 12 per cent aided and 0.1 per cent unaided.¹ The credit of doing pioneering educational work in the Pradesh goes to a number of benevolent institutions, viz., Arya Samaj, Sanatana Dharma Sabha, Dayananda Vidya Pracharini Sabha, and Kalisthan Mandir Trust.²

The total pupil enrolment during 1958-59 was 92,390. Nearly 90.8 per cent of the pupils came from rural areas. Educational facilities were available for the school-going children of the age-groups 6-11, 11-14 and 14-17 to the extent of 50.2 per cent, 19.6 per cent and 6.6 per cent respectively.³

The colleges of Himachal Pradesh are affiliated to the Punjab University, and the high schools send their candidates for the Matriculation examination of that university. There are two industrial training institutions, one at Mandi and the other at Solan. A polytechnic has been established at Sundernagar in 1959-60. Social education in the Pradesh is under the Community Development Department and is being organised in C.D. and N.E.S. blocks. During 1959-60, there were 172 social education classes, 52 *mahila samitees* and 209 youth clubs.⁴

In 1958-59, the total expenditure on recognised institutions was Rs. 66.6 lakhs. The bulk of this expenditure — 95.9 per cent was met from government funds, fees, endowments and other sources contributing 2.6, 0.2 and 1.3 per cent respectively. The average annual cost of educating a pupil in an arts and science college was Rs. 423.24 whereas in a high/higher secondary and middle school it was Rs. 61.27 and Rs. 53.5 respectively. In the primary school, the average annual cost per pupil was Rs. 52.30, which was higher than in the other union territories except Delhi, N.E.F.A. and A. & N. Islands. The average annual per capita cost on education was Rs. 5.2.

The position of the territory in respect of trained teachers is fairly satisfactory. In 1958-59, the trained teachers formed 84.0 per cent in high/higher secondary schools, 81.3 per cent in middle schools and 64.1 per cent in primary schools. The average total number of pupils per teacher in both the secondary and primary schools was 27, which is less than in other union territories except N.E.F.A.

CONCLUSION. — The Pradesh is making herculean efforts for expanding education. During 1960-61, 60 new primary schools were opened, 17 primary schools were upgraded

¹ *Education in the States*, 1958-59. p. 126.

² *Review of Education in India*, (1947-51). *op. cit.* p. 708.

³ *Education in the States*. 1958-59. p. 120.

⁴ *Review of Education in India* (1949-61)., *op. cit.* p. 712.

to the middle standard, 2 new girls' middle schools were opened, 10 middle schools were upgraded, one private school was taken over, and two high schools were raised to the higher secondary standard.¹

With a view to achieving the targets of the Third Five-Year Plan, 250 junior Basic schools have already been opened in the first year of the Plan, 13 primary schools were upgraded to the middle standard, 6 middle schools were raised to the higher secondary standard, and 3 high schools have been upgraded to the higher secondary standard.²

LACCADIVE, MINICOY AND AMENDEVI ISLANDS

BACKGROUND. — The territory consists of 19 small coral islands and a few sand banks. The total area of the territory is 10.76 sq.miles with a population of 24,000 (1961 census). Due to heavy monsoons, the territory is unapproachable between May and September. It is now under an administrator, who is assisted by an advisory council. There is a secretary and a few departmental officers. The total annual revenue of the territory is Rs. 20,000 only.

Originally, the islands formed a part of the Madras State but were constituted into a separate Union Territory in November, 1956.

PRESENT POSITION OF EDUCATION. Between 1917 and 1956, the Madras Government tried its best to spread education but the people were indifferent. During 1957-58, there were 4 middle schools, 7 non-basic primary schools and 5 social education centres. All of these were managed by government. The total pupil enrolment in these institutions was 2,887. They were distributed as under primary stage 90.8 per cent, secondary stage 5.0 per cent, and special education school standard 4.2 per cent. All the pupils came from rural areas. The total expenditure on these institutions was Rs. 3.01 lakhs.³ The schools follow the curriculum and text-books as prescribed in the Kerala State. In June 1960, the government established a high school in Ameni.

In this territory, the government meets the entire expenditure on education. The annual cost per pupil in a middle school in 1958-59 was Rs. 10.0 as against Rs. 33.2 in a primary school. There were no high/higher secondary schools and colleges of higher learning. The annual per capita cost on education was Rs. 15.1, which was higher than that in other union territories except Delhi.

¹ *The Fourteenth Year of Freedom*, op.cit. p. 410.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ *Education in the States*, 1958-59, p. 133.

The position regarding trained teachers in the territory was excellent. All teachers in the middle schools were trained, and 97·5 per cent of teachers in the primary school were trained. This achievement was perhaps due to the fact that the total number of teachers in all recognised schools did not exceed 76 (64 men and 12 women).

A good deal still remains to be done in expanding educational facilities in all branches of education, if the principle of equality of educational opportunity is to be extended to the people of this territory.

THE THIRD PLAN. — Schemes in the Third Plan include: (1) provision for the enrolment of 2,000 additional children in primary schools; (2) encouragement to girls' education; (3) development of the high school at Ameni and the establishment of another high school at Androth, and (4) provision of scholarships for university and technical education.¹

MANIPUR

BACKGROUND. — Manipur has a long tradition of culture. It was an independent kingdom till 1891, when it came under the British. In 1948, a popular government was set up. It was converted into a union territory in 1956.

Manipur has an area of 8,628 sq.miles with a population of 5,77,635. It is divided into ten sub-divisions.² Nearly nine-tenths of the territory consist of hills. Approximately 99·5 per cent of the population live in villages. Manipuri is the most important language of the region and is spoken by 65·3 per cent of the population. The rest use the local dialects, which are as many as 64 in number.³

There are two local bodies, viz., the Manipur Territorial Council and the Imphal Municipal Board. The former is in charge of education up to the secondary stage and receives quarterly grants from the Administration. The expenditure of the second body is met from municipal taxes and government subsidies.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP. — The Director of Education is the head of the Department. He is assisted by one Deputy Director of Education and a Special Officer for Planning. There are two inspectors of schools, six deputy inspectors of schools and 31 assistant inspectors of schools in Manipur.

During 1958-59, the total expenditure on recognised institutions was Rs. 46·02 lakhs. The government met 73·2 per cent of this expenditure, while the contributions from the local

¹ *Review of Education in India*, (1947-61). pp. 750-51.

² *India*, 1961. p. 491.

³ *Review of Education in India* (1947-61). pp. 717-18.

boards, fees, endowments and other sources were 0.3, 18.2, 7.1 and 1.2 per cent respectively.¹ The Central Government gave a grant of Rs. 40,495 during that year.

The average annual cost for educating a pupil in an arts and science college was Rs. 126.80. It was Rs. 45.43 in a secondary school, a figure which was smaller than the corresponding figures in other union territories. The same is true about the figures for the average annual cost per pupil in the middle school and the primary school. The average annual cost per pupil in the middle and the primary school respectively was Rs. 33.05 and Rs. 17.03. The per capita annual cost on education was Rs. 6.1.

In respect of trained teachers, the position in the territory was the worst of all the union territories. The percentages of trained teachers in high/higher secondary schools, middle schools and primary schools were 10.5, 7.6 and 7.7 respectively. Effective steps need to be taken to expand training facilities in the territory.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF EDUCATION Manipur has three colleges—two arts and science colleges and one college for Music, Dancing and other Fine Arts. The colleges are affiliated to the Gauhati University. During 1960-61, there were as many as 60 high schools and 300 middle schools in the territory. Two public examinations are held during the secondary stage—one at the end of the middle school stage and the other at the end of the high school stage. The former is conducted by a Board under the Territorial Council and the latter by the Gauhati University.²

Primary schools follow the same curriculum as in Assam. During 1958-59, there were as many as 100 Basic and 1,227 non-basic primary schools in Manipur. Educational facilities available for the school-going children of the age-group 6-11, 11-14, 14-17 were to the extent of 98.8 per cent, 36.0 per cent and 19.9 per cent respectively.² There are at present two technical schools, one normal training institute for teachers, 52 community centres and 100 village libraries in the territory.

CONCLUSION During the third plan period, Manipur has allotted the following sums of money for the improvement and expansion of education:

1. **PRIMARY EDUCATION.**—Rs. 40 lakhs for appointing 1,000 additional teachers, Rs. 71,000 for girls' education, Rs. 9.31 lakhs for opening middle/senior/Basic schools, and Rs. 5 lakhs for training of teachers,

2. **SECONDARY EDUCATION.**—Rs. 19.30 lakhs for the conversion of a high school into a multipurpose institution, Rs. 11.70 lakhs for science teaching, Rs. 5.5 lakhs for libraries, and Rs. 1.62 lakhs for scholarships.

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59* p. 146.

² *Review of Education in India (1947-61)* p. 722.

3. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION. — Rs. 3.25 for the improvement of Government D. M. College and Rs. 1 lakh for the expansion of women's education.

NAGALAND

BACKGROUND. — The Nagaland is the sixteenth State of the Indian Union. It has an area of 6,236 sq.miles and a population of 3.69 lakhs (1951 Census).

An Interim Body has been established consisting of 45 members, chosen by election from the tribes in Nagaland. An Executive Council consisting of five members has been set up to assist and advise the governor in the exercise of his functions. There will be a village council for each village, a range council for each range and a council for each tribe. The entire area is, however, passing through abnormal times at present.

PRESENT POSITION OF EDUCATION. — The Nagas are keenly interested in education. They desire the establishment of a primary school in each of the 718 villages of the area. There is a further demand for English middle schools in bigger villages. Each tribe further desires to have at least one high school of its own.

* In 1957, the new administration launched a Three-Year Plan for educational reconstruction. The progress achieved as a result of this plan can be appreciated from the following statistics:

TABLE 82
Educational Progress in Nagaland, 1957-61*

Category of Schools	Classes Taught	Schools	
		1957	1961
Primary	A,B, I & II	302	128
Upper Primary	A,B, I to IV	10	19
Middle English	A,B, I to VI	21	56
High English	A,B, I to X	3	7
Intermediate Arts College	I and II year	—	1
Total		336	511

* *Review of Education in India, 1947-61*, pp. 762-63.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY. — The entire territory is divided into three districts, and education in each district is administered by a district inspector of schools. There is no central authority, however, for coordinating the activities of the districts. In March, 1961, an inspector of schools for Nagaland has been appointed. The government is also considering a proposal for the establishment of a Directorate of Education for this new State.

THE THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN. — A sum of Rs. 100 lakhs has been provided in the Third Five-Year Plan for the expansion of education. It includes the following proposals:

1. Taking over of 177 private lower primary schools, 35 private middle schools and private colleges;
2. The upgrading of 58 government lower primary schools into upper primary schools, and 7 high schools into higher secondary schools;
3. The opening of 2 training schools for primary teachers;
4. The provision of a large number of stipends and scholarships at all levels; and
5. The printing and publication of books in tribal languages.

NORTH-EAST FRONTIER AGENCY (N.E.F.A.)

BACKGROUND. - This territory has an area of 31,436 sq. miles and has a population of 4.5 lakhs (1951 census). The tract is administered by the Governor of Assam acting as the agent of the President. He is assisted by an adviser in Shillong and the ultimate responsibility of the area vests in the Government of India. The agency consists of five administrative divisions.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP. Till 1917, the political officers of the tract had to look after education. At present, education is being administered by the Director of Education. He is assisted by one assistant director of education and one inspector of schools at the headquarters. Education in the divisions is in charge of political officers, who are the heads of their respective divisions. They always keep the Director of Education informed about the educational activities of their own division.

Under the agency of each political officer, there is an assistant educational officer. He is designated as the 'Divisional Inspector of Schools'. He administers all primary schools in his area. His task is, however, difficult, because the schools are scattered over a vast area and are at a distance of three to ten days' distance from the divisional headquarters. Naturally, the inspector can hardly inspect a few schools per year.

THE PRESENT POSITION. During 1958-59, there were 128 educational institutions in the Agency — 2 high schools, 12 middle schools, 112 primary schools, one teacher training school, and one miscellaneous institution. These were run by government.. The total number of pupils in these institutions was 5,633 (4,970 boys and 663 girls). All the pupils came from rural areas.¹ Compulsory education was not in force in that year.

¹ *Education in the States*, 1958-59. p. 154.

The total expenditure on recognised institutions was Rs. 22.41 lakhs. The entire expenditure was borne by the government. There is provision of free education, free hostel facilities, free clothing and free books.¹ This being the case, the average annual cost for educating a pupil was pretty high in all branches of education, which could be provided in the territory. The average cost per pupil in a secondary school was as high as Rs. 257.87. This figure is the second highest among the union territories. The cost of education per pupil in a middle school and a primary school is the highest. It costs the government on an average Rs. 150.18 for educating a pupil in a middle school and Rs. 121.16 in a primary school. The average per capita cost to the government on education was Rs. 3.3.

The trained teachers formed 75.0 per cent in high/higher secondary schools, 71.6 per cent in middle schools and 81.5 per cent in primary schools of the total strength of the staff. The position in respect of trained teachers is much better than that in Manipur, Tripura and Pondicherry. The teacher-pupil ratio was 1:14 in secondary schools and 1:19 in the primary schools. Here, also N.E.F.A. has been most favourably placed among the union territories.

PONDICHERRY

BACKGROUND. — The French establishments in India were taken over by the Government of India in 1954 as a result of an agreement with the Government of France. The territory comprises Pondicherry and Karikal on the Coromondal Coast, Yanam on the Andhra Coast and Mahe on the coast of Kerala. The administration of the State is being carried on by the Government of India through a Chief Commissioner. It has an area of 186 sq.miles and a population of 3,17,163 (1951 census).

The State is divided into 16 communes — 8 in Pondicherry, 6 in Karikal, one in Mahe and one in Yanam. Each commune is administered by a municipal council.

EDUCATION. — Pondicherry has a good tradition of education. It was built up by the French Government as well as by Christian missionaries. It may, however, be noted that since the beginning of the present century English education has been developed along with the French. The study of English has, however, received a new momentum with the advent of independence. The figures given in Table 83 show the progress of education in the State.

¹ *Review of Education in India, 1947-61.* p. 573.

TABLE 83

Education in Pondicherry, 1955-56 to 1960-61*

Enrolment.	1955-56	1960-61
Class I to V	19,155	32,780
Class VI to VIII	2,972	7,120
Class IX to XI	693	3,000

* *The Fourteenth Year of Freedom* p. 417 .

During 1958-59, there were 349 recognised institutions in the State. Of these 56.4 per cent were managed by government and 43.6 per cent by private bodies (42.1 per cent aided and 1.5 per cent unaided). The total number of pupils in these institutions was 40,550 (26,398 boys and 14,152 girls). They were distributed as: pre-primary stage 4.9 per cent, primary stage 67.8 per cent, secondary stage 21.5 per cent, university stage (general education) 0.4 per cent, while the remaining 5.4 per cent received professional and special education of both school and college standard.¹

The average annual cost per pupil in an arts and science college is Rs. 65.1, which is much smaller than the corresponding figures in the other union territories. Even the annual average cost per pupil in a secondary school is smaller than that in the remaining territories excepting Manipur. The figures for the average cost per pupil in a middle school and a primary school were respectively Rs. 56.4 and Rs. 43.3. The average per capita annual expenditure on education was Rs. 9.6.

The position of the territory in respect of trained teachers is fairly satisfactory. The trained teachers formed 62.5 per cent in higher secondary schools, 69.8 per cent in middle schools and 42.8 per cent in primary schools. The average total number of pupils per teacher in the secondary and the primary school were respectively 27 and 33.

Compulsory education is not in force. The Centre Pédagogique at Pondicherry trains teachers for primary schools. Secondary schools prepare pupils for the Matriculation examination of the Madras University and the S.S.I.C. Examination of the Madras State.

A medical college has been established recently. There is also a school of arts, which offers a three-year course. Pondicherry is also associated with the 'Sri Aurobindo International University Centre'.

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59.* p. 161.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP. — The Director of Public Instruction is the head of the Education Department. He is assisted by two deputy directors. The Director is represented by a delegate in each of the outlying settlements at Karikal, Mahe and Yanam. In Pondicherry, there are two senior inspectors.— one is called the Permanent Delegate and the other is called the Inspector of Schools.

During 1958-59, the territory spent Rs. 36.52 lakhs on recognised educational institutions. The government contributed 88.2 per cent of this expenditure, while the contribution from fees, endowments and other sources was 8.2, 0.4 and 3.2 per cent respectively.¹

THE THIRD PLAN. — A provision of Rs. 167.5 lakhs has been suggested for education in the Third Plan. It is proposed to introduce free and compulsory education during the plan period, when 300 additional classes will be opened for the purpose. The existing School of Arts and Crafts will be converted into a junior technical school, and a polytechnic will be opened. An arts college, offering pre-university course, has already been started. The provision of mid-day meals will be extended to private schools.²

FORMER PORTUGUESE TERRITORIES

BACKGROUND. — The peremptory military action in Goa in 1961 brought to an end the prolonged anticlimax of a 500 years old neo-heroic drama of Portuguese adventure. It was on November 25, 1510 that Alphonso d' Albuquerque conquered Goa. On December 19, 1961 Goa was liberated and became a part of her motherland.

Goa is no strange or exotic land like the type once advertised in tourist posters. Its skies are the same as those of the Malabar coast with lattices of palm-fronds screening the clouds. It is not unlike the rest of Konkan with its luxuriance of foliage and abundance of fruits. Culturally, it is not, it cannot be, different from the rest of India, but has during the centuries evolved a peculiar pattern of life.

EDUCATION. — Thirty years after Albuquerque had conquered Goa, St. Francis Xavier embarked upon the greatest single-handed missionary enterprise of modern times. He walked along the Konkan, Malabar and Coromandal coasts, picking up languages easily as if he had the pentecostal gift of tongues, and converted, as much by his gentle example as by precept, a large number of people. He advertised himself as a Brahmin from the West, bringing back to India the lost Vedas.

¹ *Education in the States, 1958-59.* p. 161.

² *The Fourteenth Year of Freedom.* p. 417.

The first Jesuit College was established at Chaul in Goa (1675). It was attended by more than 300 students. Another institution was founded at Bandora in Salsette and was known as the College of St. Anne. It developed into a university in 1620 but came to an end in 1739, when the building was destroyed by the Portuguese to prevent it from being seized and used as a fortress by the Marathas. Some more Jesuit colleges were started initially at Goa and later on at various other places.

But with all these efforts, education has been confined to the upper classes which took to Portuguese education and progressed in every walk of life, the masses remained untouched by Portuguese culture. Konkani is the language of the masses. Though in early times, the Portuguese tried to ban and kill the language and though all education under the Portuguese regime was carried on in Portuguese, not even ten per cent of the population are literate in Portuguese. For teaching the Portuguese language, the Portuguese Government established 450 schools in Goa quite recently and offered very handsome salaries to teachers.

THE PRESENT POSITION. With the advent of civilian administration in Goa, a new chapter in the development of the former Portuguese colonies has been opened. On June 20, 1962, the Dhempe College of Arts and Science housed in one of the buildings of the Lyceum at Panjim was inaugurated by the Lieutenant-Governor. He is also pushing through arrangements to have an engineering college, the first of its kind in Goa from the next academic year. Educationists consider that a university for Goa is "a necessity in view of its growing educational institutions and for the maintenance of special characteristics of its culture."

The new union territory is faced with a number of educational problems. The existing century old medical school is to be expanded to bring it in line with the best colleges in other parts of the Country. Liberal and science education imparted through the medium of the Portuguese is losing ground. The question of the medium of instruction of higher education shall have to be immediately tackled. The Lyceum the only Portuguese secondary and higher school is shrinking. From 900 students in 1961, the number has dropped to 425. The cause is apparent. Students see no prospect for learning the Portuguese language. Arrangements shall have to be made to teach from its first year English and Hindi. The medium of instruction to be adopted at the primary stage from Standard III onwards has become a controversial issue and a lot of heat is being generated over it. An over-whelming section of Christians and a part of the Hindu Community favoured the use of Konkani as the medium of instruction at the primary stage. A predominantly large

section of the Hindu population had advocated Marathi as the medium. "This issue need to be tackled tactfully, lest it should result in driving a wedge between the great communities of the territory, viz., the Hindu and the Christian communities."¹ Marathi is studied in 240 out of the total 547 private and official schools in Goa.

These are some of the many problems which are going to engage the time and energy of the administrators fully. It is hoped that these problems would be solved satisfactorily in immediate future, and Goa as well as Diu and Daman would fast develop into important educational centres.

DECISION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA. — Quite recently, the Government of India appointed a committee with Sri B. N. Jha, Vice-Chancellor of Jodhpur University, as the chairman for suggesting measures for integrating the educational system prevailing in the newly-freed Portuguese territories with the pattern in the rest of the country. The Committee made a detailed survey, in its 142-page report, on the system of education in Goa.

It is now officially announced that certain recommendations of the Committee would be implemented immediately, while others, of a 'long-term nature' would be published with the Goa Government's decision on it. The Goa Government, has, however, announced that the pattern of education would, in future, broadly conform to the system prevailing in the Centrally-administered areas and generally follow the courses adopted by the Central Board of Higher Secondary Education, New Delhi.

According to the Goa Government's decision, the duration of the educational course would be five years of primary school, three years of middle school and three years of higher secondary school. The age of admission to the first primary standard has been fixed at six and above. The medium of instruction for the first two years of the primary stage will be the mother-tongue of the child or any other language included in the Indian Constitution to be chosen by the guardian of the student. It further says that if Konkani is the mother-tongue of a student, Devanagari script should be used in teaching him. The opening of a school or a division of a class with a particular language as medium of instruction would be subject to the availability of a minimum of 20 students opting for that language. There are 461 registered primary schools in Goa.

Education in primary schools receiving grants-in-aid would be free. As an interim measure, the Administration has decided to give grants-in-aid of amounts equal to the loss in fees incurred.² The syllabus for primary schools would generally be on the old

¹ *Indian Express*, June 28, 1962.

² *Times of India*, August 17, 1962.

pattern except in respect of Portuguese history and geography which should be replaced by that of India with special emphasis on the geography of Goa.

For children who are already in the third and fourth primary classes of Portuguese schools the Portuguese language would continue to be the medium of both tuition and examination 'only for the next two years.' A study of Hindi and English has been prescribed in the higher classes at the primary stage.

Secondary schools in Goa will be affiliated to the Central Board of Higher Education, New Delhi. Certain interim arrangements have been made for the Lyceum (Portuguese secondary and higher school), private Portuguese schools, and English and Marathi secondary schools.

The announcement said that there would be no change in the syllabus of upper four classes of English and Marathi secondary schools which might continue to prepare students as before for examination by the S S C Board, Poona, but prescribed the "Delhi pattern of studies" for classes lower than the eighth standard of these schools. The "interim arrangements" might continue for four years. There are 86 secondary schools in Goa. The languages taught are Konkani, Marathi, Urdu, English and Portuguese.

The Government of Goa has also accepted the recommendations of the Jha Committee that religious instruction in private schools, if provided, should be given outside school hours and that it should be only for pupils whose guardians give them written permission to attend. Religious instruction will not be given in government schools and no denominational prayers will be held. The Lieutenant-Governor has, however, said that "moral instruction or instruction giving information about the basic common tenets of all religions is not barred."

THE FIVE YEAR PLAN One of the first acts of the civilian administration was to set up a planning board to draft a five-year development plan for Goa, Daman and Diu. The plan will form a part of the national Third Plan and will work on the lines and principles laid down by the Planning Commission. It is likely to be ready for implementation by the end of October 1962.

The Plan will have the following aims: (1) to raise the standard of living of the masses; (2) to prevent the concentration of wealth and economic power in the hands of a few; and (3) expanding and sharing prosperity for all. It will be a people's plan. Development of education will receive proper attention in the Plan.

INTRODUCTION

FORMATION OF THE TERRITORY.—The Union Territory of Delhi takes its name after the city of Delhi, the capital of the Republic of India. The city of Delhi is situated on the banks of the Jumuna. The present area of the territory is 573 sq. miles. It is approximately 24 miles in length and 24 miles in width.

The population of the territory is 26.44 lakhs, with a density of population of 4,614 per sq. mile. Its literary percentage is 51. About 90 per cent of children, who pass Class VI, seek admission to secondary education and about 50 of these who pass higher secondary go for higher education.

The land has four main physical divisions, viz. (1) *khadar* or riverain of the Jumuna, (2) the *bangar* or level main land, (3) the *dabar* or low land subject to floods and (4) *pahari* or rocky. The respective areas of the land are: *khadar*: 36,712, *bangar*: 75,871, *dabar*: 68,863, *pahari*: 54, 409 acres; and total 2,35,855 acres.

The city of Delhi is one of the oldest capitals and one of the most historic places on earth. It would be true to say that every stone here has a history. It has been estimated that the debris of old building covers an area of more than 45 square miles.

Delhi as a province came into existence on November 1, 1912. Earlier to this, Delhi was, strangely enough, a district of the Punjab and was called the Delhi district of the Punjab; the district constituted of the *tehsils* of Delhi, Sonapat and Ballahgarh. The Delhi province came into existence after the royal visit of King Emperor, George V, in December 1911. The Government of India took over the Delhi Tehsil and Mehrauli area under direct control leaving the areas of Sonapat and Ballahgarh to the Punjab. Subsequently, some areas known as Shahdara lying to the East of the Jumuna were transferred to Delhi from the Uttar Pradesh.

Delhi continued to be a province till March 17, 1952, when in consequence of enforcement of an Act of the Government of India Delhi was declared a Part 'C' State, with a popular government. With the reorganisation of the states and the abolition of Part 'C' States, Delhi was given the new status of a Union Territory on 1st November 1956.

In response to a demand for some kind of popular government, changes of far-reaching importance were introduced in the Union Territory by establishing the Municipal Corporation of Delhi on April 7, 1958. Functions relating to pre-primary, and Basic education, medical, health, water supply, electricity, etc., were transferred to the Municipal Corporation, which was formed by merging all local bodies and district boards excepting the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Board.

The population of Delhi has been changing very fast, particularly after the partition of the country. The Census of 1931 records a population of 6,36,247, of 1941: 9,17,939, of 1951: 17,00,000 and of 1961: 26,44,058.

Another feature of the territory is that nearly 82 per cent of the population is urban and the entire area is urban minded. The percentage distribution of the population into different categories of livelihood is: agriculture, 8.1; manufacturing 20.00; commerce, 20.4; transport and communications, 5.9; service, 39.7; profession and liberal arts, 5.9.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. Delhi being a district of the Punjab did not have a separate Department of Education. Like any other district, it was governed by the Director of Education, Punjab. All rules and regulations, including the Education Code that were applicable to any other district of the Punjab, were also applicable to Delhi. For the area which was transferred from U. P., the rules of the Education Department of U.P. were applied. Two authorities thus operated in Delhi—one the Director of Education, Punjab and the other that of U.P. This continued to be so even after the coming into existence of the Delhi Province as a separate unit and as late as 1929. All rules and regulations which were enforced in the Punjab were automatically applicable to Delhi also. But after this year, Delhi started to have its own rules and regulations, and so local amendments to the Code began to be made. The Punjab Education Code, which is still applicable in Delhi, is in consequence, very different from the Punjab Education Code, now applicable in the Punjab. A new code has now been drafted for Delhi, which is being examined by the Government of India.

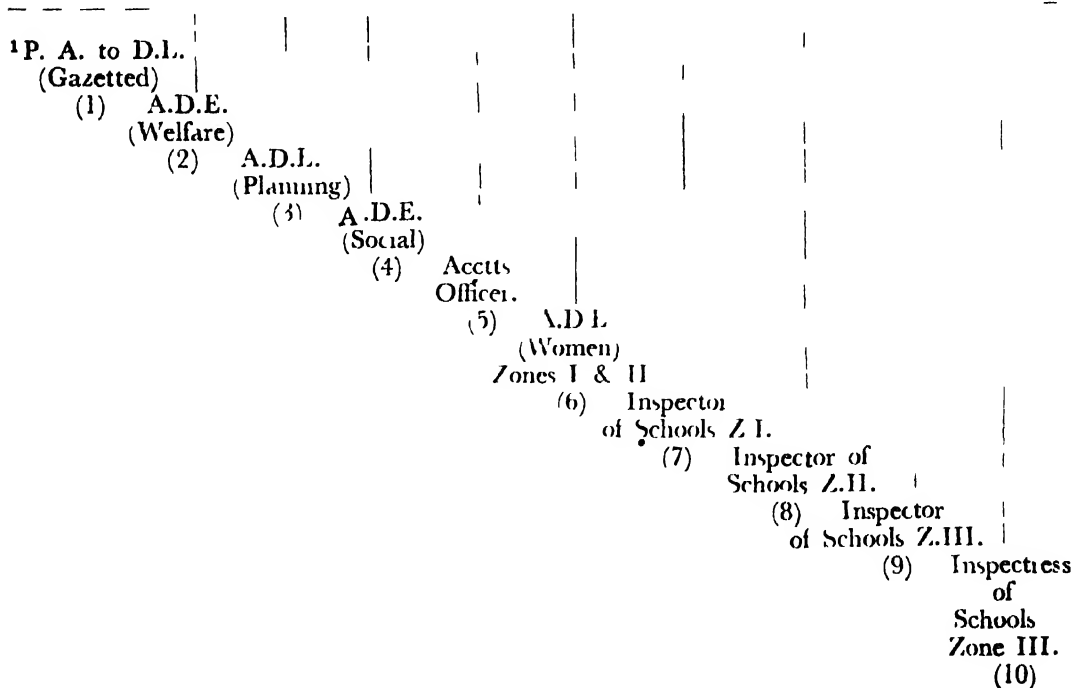
The Department of Education as such came into existence in 1916 for the first time, when a Superintendent of Education was appointed to look after the education of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. This arrangement of one educational authority for Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara continued upto year 1948-49, when Delhi was separated from Ajmer-Merwara. The status of the Head of the Department was raised in 1949 from that of Superintendent of Education to that of Director of Education (D. E.). Ever since, the Education Department is headed by a Director of Education.

ADMINISTRATION AT HEADQUARTERS

EDUCATION MINISTER AND THE SECRETARY OF THE DEPARTMENT — Except for a very brief period when Delhi was a Part 'C' State, there has not been any such authority as a minister of education. During this brief period, the Chief Minister was also the minister for education and for a time he was assisted by a deputy minister for education.

After the abolition of Delhi as a Part 'C' State and prior to the setting up of the Corporation, the Chief Secretary was also the Secretary of Education and was directly responsible to the Chief Commissioner. After the establishment of the corporation, the posts of the Education Secretary and that of Director of Education have been combined — the Director of Education also being the *ex-officio* Secretary of Education to the Union Territory.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT — The organization of the Education Department today is as under:

Director of Education**Deputy Director of Education****Secretary, Board of
Higher Secondary Education**

FUNCTIONS. — The Directorate of Education is responsible for prescribing and maintaining academic standards for all recognised schools. It prepares and prescribes syllabuses for all classes from Class I to Class VIII. It prescribes text-books for all these classes. The Director has a Text-book Committee under him. It prepares syllabi for all classes from I to VIII and approves text-books for them. The Text-book Committee has on it representatives of the Department of Education, Delhi Territory, the Delhi Municipal Corporation and the New Delhi Municipal Committee, the Teachers' and the Head teachers' Associations and the Delhi University. It is responsible for according or withdrawing recognition to primary and middle schools. It has to pay visits to all recognised high and higher secondary schools and can also visit the schools of the municipal corporation. It pays grants to all recognised private bodies and local bodies for the schools and institutions run by them. The main function of the Directorate of Education is the administration of higher secondary schools. It recognises and pays grants to educational, cultural and social organisations in the territory. It is responsible for organising social education programmes in the rural areas and co-ordinating the work of the Department with the Community Development Blocks in the territory.

BOARD OF HIGHER SECONDARY EDUCATION

The Board of Secondary Education was constituted by the Chief Commissioner on 27th of February 1926. It was dissolved and reconstituted as the Board of Higher Secondary Education on the 1st of April 1945. The Board has on it representatives of:

1. The Directorate of Education, Delhi,
2. The Director of Health Services, Delhi,
3. The Principal, Delhi Polytechnic, Delhi,
4. The University of Delhi,
5. The Delhi Municipal Corporation and New Delhi Municipal Committee;
6. Heads of higher secondary schools for boys and of girls,
7. Heads of high schools for boys and of girls,
8. Rural Areas of Delhi,
9. Delhi State Teachers' Association, and
10. The Association of the Managers of Schools.

The Director of Education is the Chairman of the Board. It has now a whole-time secretary. The main functions of the Board are (1) to conduct examinations; (2) to recognise High/Higher Secondary/Higher Secondary Technical and Multipurpose institutions for the purpose of its examinations; and (3) to inspect schools for recognition or condition of work or services.

RELATION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT WITH UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

The Department of Education has no relation with the Delhi University or its constituent or affiliated colleges. The establishment of colleges in Delhi is historically an earlier event. Some of them, as for instance St. Stephen's College came into existence as early as 1865. The Administration does not run any arts or science college, nor does it give grants to any. The University and its colleges get grants from the University Grants Commission, and the University is a central university. In 1959-60, it had 20 constituent and affiliated colleges with a student enrolment of 16,763 and its estimated expenditure was Rs. 2.22 crores of rupees.

Another notable institution is the Jamia Millia Islamia or Muslim National University. It is a non-statutory body and was established in 1920. It is conducting a number of educational institutions, viz., a college, a multi-purpose higher secondary school, a primary school, an institute of adult education, a teachers' training institute and an institute of rural education. The Jamia is a residential and unitary university.

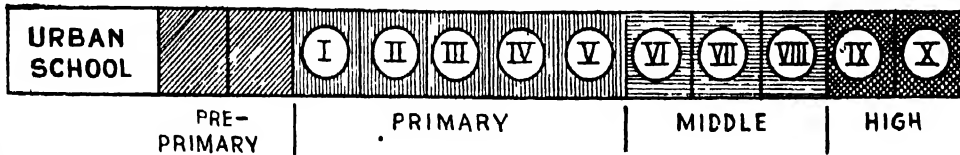
SECONDARY EDUCATION

Delhi does not have a uniform secondary system of education. Two courses are run almost parallel to each other. The one is the High School system, under which a student completes his school education in ten years. The other is the Higher Secondary system, under which a student completes his education in 11 years. Both have five classes for primary and three classes for middle. The high school has only two upper classes, i.e., IX and X, but the higher secondary has three upper classes, i.e., IX, X and XI. The minimum age for admission to schools is 5 plus. Students of high schools sit for High School Leaving Certificate and those of higher secondary for Higher Secondary School Certificate. The curriculum in high and higher school systems differs from 9th class onwards. The high school course offers English, mother-tongue, mathematics, a composite course of sciences, social studies, drawing, etc. The higher secondary system offers two main and three elective subjects—the elective being the Arts Group, the Science Group and the Commerce group. There is yet another system, the multipurpose. These schools, which are five at present, offer humanities, sciences, technical, commercial, fine arts and agricultural groups. It may be noted that Hindi is an additional subject both in high and higher school systems. It has to be passed at the end of Class IX, after which it is optional.

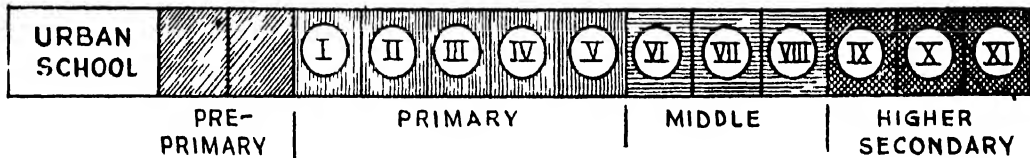
Students coming out of the higher secondary system can take up humanities or sciences in the university, if they secure the qualifying marks, or they can join the pre-

SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN DELHI

HIGH SCHOOL SYSTEM



HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM



BASIC AND NON-BASIC PARALLEL SYSTEMS

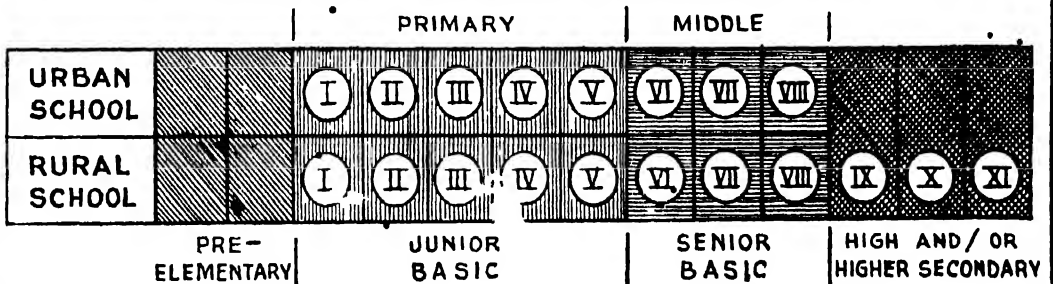


CHART 24

medical or pre-engineering classes of the university and qualify for entrance to these degrees. They can also join the Diploma Courses in teaching, engineering and other professions. Those who graduate from high schools and want to prosecute their studies further have to undergo a four years' university course and those who graduate from higher secondary schools have to undergo a three-years' degree course. The syllabus for the Higher Secondary is a composite course of three years and is not just one more class added to the High School course. There is a move at presents to upgrade all high schools into higher secondary institutions. The process is likely to be complete by 1962.

PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY¹ AND MIDDLE EDUCATION

PRIMARY AND MIDDLE EDUCATION. Education at the primary and middle stages was a mixed responsibility of the Delhi State Government, the district boards and the municipal committees till 1958 when the Delhi Municipal Corporation was formed. But today, it is an obligatory function of the local bodies and is no longer a mixed responsibility.

The Directorate of Education, Delhi has now no primary schools of its own but it has indirect control over 50 primary schools of the N.D.M.C. and the Cantonment Board and the primary departments attached to high and higher secondary schools. Private bodies run 59 primary schools and have primary departments attached to their high and higher secondary schools. The local bodies run 690 primary/Jr Basic schools.¹

There has been a kind of duality in the syllabi of primary and the middle school curriculum— the Basic and the non-basic. Basic education in Delhi was introduced in Delhi in 1948 in the rural areas. Ever since the syllabi of junior Basic and senior Basic in Delhi continued to be different from those of primary and middle schools in the urban areas. It has now been felt that all schools in the capital should be oriented towards the Basic pattern. The syllabus therefore has been revised. The best features of each one have been taken into consideration and an integrated syllabus prepared and introduced in all schools of Delhi urban as well as rural. The syllabus is activity-centred and is based on some kind of craft. The syllabus, however, has not emphasised the concept of correlated teaching. This removes the duality in the syllabi of the Delhi Basic and non-basic schools. The Basic schools, however, are expected to continue teaching through the correlated method.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Prior to the establishment of the Delhi Municipal Corporation, the State Department of Education was responsible for pre-primary education and it ran a few schools. But these schools, along with other primary and junior Basic and

¹ Figures for 1958-59.

senior Basic/middle schools were transferred to the Municipal Corporation. Delhi has not yet made much headway in pre-primary education. A few schools, not more than 22, are run by the Municipal Corporation.

MISCELLANEOUS BRANCHES

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — The need for technical education was felt as early as 1883, when the Delhi Municipal Committee passed a resolution stating that it was highly desirable to establish an industrial art school at Delhi. The school consequently was established in March of that year. The school is still existing and is now run not by the Municipal Corporation but by the Directorate of Education, Delhi. It bears the same name. In addition to this institution the Administration runs another technical school. Beyond this, neither the local bodies nor the Delhi Directorate of Education shoulder any responsibility in this field. The Central Government, however, runs a polytechnic which leads to Diploma and Degree courses in a number of technical subjects.

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB. The Directorate of Education had one school, Lady Noyce School for the Deaf and Dumb. This has now been transferred to the Directorate of Social Welfare, Delhi Administration. At present it caters to the needs of the adjoining states of the Punjab, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. The Municipal Corporation and other local bodies of Delhi have no school for the Deaf and Dumb. The Directorate of Education, however, gives grants to voluntary organizations working in some specific fields including schools for the handicapped.

TEACHER EDUCATION. A normal school for teachers was established in Delhi very early in 1860. The school, however, had a chequered career. At present the Directorate of Education runs a teacher training school on Basic lines. This institution is co-educational. There is no primary/junior Basic or senior Basic school yet attached to the institute. It may be noted that the Corporation does not have any training school for teachers under its control though it employs a large body of primary and Basic middle school teachers.

SOCIAL WELFARE PROGRAMMES. Two institutions in the field work directly under the Directorate of Education and are aided by it. The first is the Children's Home. This home is meant for delinquents, who are looked after and are taught some vocation. The second is the *Bal Sahyog*, which caters to the needs of vagrant children.

SOCIAL EDUCATION. — Social education is not at present the sole responsibility of any individual authority, just as primary education or secondary education is. Five main authorities function in the field. They are the Directorate of Education, Delhi, the

Delhi Municipal Corporation, the New Delhi Municipal Committee, the Delhi Social Welfare Board, and the *Bharat Sewak Samaj*.

The Delhi Department of Education has a Department of Social Education. The Department is headed by an Assistant Director of Education. Its jurisdiction is the rural areas including some of the colonies of Delhi. The Delhi Municipal Corporation also has a department of Social Education which is under the Education Department. The jurisdiction of this department is urban areas of Delhi. With the establishment of the Delhi Municipal Corporation there is an anomaly in the distribution of areas, which was based earlier on the jurisdiction of the erstwhile areas of Delhi Municipal Committee and the rest of the area. Now that the entire area forms the Delhi Municipal Corporation, the distribution looks unnatural. The New Delhi Municipal Committee continues to have its programmes in its area. Thus there is need to give some thought to re-organizing the set-up needed for an effective programme of social education in the Capital.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION A unique feature of the Department of Education of the Municipal Corporation is its Physical Education wing. It has two main functions (a) To work with the adult population at various centres, and (b) with corporation primary schools for implementing physical education programmes.

FINANCE

It is not possible to give an exact account of the finances of the Union Territory in relation to education. The Administration Report of the Delhi Union Territory has not so far taken into account various items of expenditure incurred by all agencies responsible for education. It has restricted the account to its own items of expenditure or income. The report consequently is inadequate and does not give a correct idea of total expenditure on education in relation to total expenditure in the Territory nor does it give a correct idea of the income of the Union. Delhi is an administrative unit and at present the total position of the unit, its income or expenditure as a unit on education or any other aspects of life is not available.

To arrive at an approximately correct position it is necessary therefore to study not only the expenditure of the Union Territory but also that of the local as well as private bodies. The accounts of private bodies are not available and therefore cannot be given. The accounts, however, of local bodies are available and shall be taken into consideration,

TABLE 84

Finances of Local Bodies, Delhi, 1958-59

	Total Expenditure	Expenditure on Education	Percentage
Delhi	Rs 14,4,97,207	Rs 2,11,28,298	14.6
Municipal Corporation	Rs 4,55,02,410	Rs 1,11,13,287	24.6
N.D.M.C.	Rs 3,82,81,841	Rs 15,79,922	4.2

These figures of the local bodies include the grants received by them from the State.

SOURCES OF INCOME. --- The sources of income for the Territory and the local bodies are different, but the usual sources like land revenue, sales tax, agriculture etc. are collected by the Administration. Property tax, house tax, road tax, and electricity/charge are collected by local bodies.

Delhi has been taking a keen interest in providing larger and larger schooling facilities. This is indicated by the sizable rise in the expenses incurred on education. It rises from a petty sum of Rs. 30,791 in 1917 to Rs. 2,11,28,298 in 1958, a rise of more than 700 per cent.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT BLOCKS

Delhi is divided into five development blocks for purposes of development programmes. The blocks are:

1. The Community Development Block, Alipore. The block consists of 61 villages with a population of 64,000.
2. Najagrah. The block consists of 71 villages with a population of 63,527.
3. Shahdara. The block consists of the entire area transferred from U. P. Twenty villages have been urbanised so far.
4. Mehrauli. The block consists of 54 villages with a population of 59,551.
5. Kanjhawal. This block formed a part of Alipur Block upto 1-4-59. It has 56 villages.

Development programmes in the block relate to agriculture, irrigation, animal husbandary, health and rural sanitation, poultry, co-operation and social education. In the field of education, there is a very close co-operation between the Social Education Officer of the Directorate of Education and the Block Development Officer. In fact, all programmes for the block are drawn by the Social Education Officer. The Assistant

Director of Education is the head of the office for all social education activities at the State level. He is also responsible for the execution of these programmes in the blocks and would exercise complete supervision over the block staff for social education. On the other hand, the Development Officer is the leader of the Block team and the Assistant Social Education Officer at the Block level will work as a member of the Block team. It may be noted that the functions of the Block Development Officer is to ensure that various departmental programmes are executed promptly within the outline provided by the Assistant Director of Education.

The type of centres and the programme of the department consists of: (1) social education centres or community centres, (2) model community centres, (3) school-cum-community centres, (4) library service, (5) *janata* college, (6) audio-visual education through mobile education van, (7) rural broad-cast, (8) organization of youth clubs, and (9) production of popular literature.

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC BODIES AND PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN EDUCATION

The State is a late entrant in the field of education in Delhi. Public bodies in Delhi, as in other parts of the country, have been pioneers in the field of education. Delhi like other parts of India had an indigenous system of education. Education was imparted in a variety of schools. Some of the main types were:

- (1) *Maktab* where Urdu, Persian and Arabic were taught;
- (2) *Chatsalas* (from Chatta, a school boy), where Hindi is taught;
- (3) *Pathshala* (from 'Path' reading), where Nagri or Shastri is taught; and
- (4) Schools in which English is taught, together with other subjects like Hindi, Nagri, etc.

The first private body schools were mission schools, the earliest being St. Stephen's Mission High School. It was opened shortly after the First War of Independance. The first Indian sponsored and managed school in Delhi is the Anglo-Sanskrit Victoria Jubilee High School. It was established in 1869 and continues to function as one of the good schools in Delhi. Most of the schools of Delhi were either private or local body schools till 1958. But private effort is not so enthusiastic now as it was earlier, inspite of the state provision of generous grants. Delhi is now having more of government and local body schools rather than private institutions. Yet there has been a steady growth in the expansion of private schools. The present comparative position of schools run by private managements is given below in Table 85.

TABLE 85

Distribution of Schools by Management, Delhi

Sr. No.	Category of School	1956-57 Management			1958-59 Management		
		Government	Local Bodies	Aided	Government	Local Bodies	Aided
1.	Higher Secondary	10	3	37	82	37	71
2.	High	50	5	11	11	1	17
3.	Middle	31	3	17	6	31	35
4.	Senior Basic	1				14	
5.	Primary	11	224	17		331	59
6.	Junior Basic	285				231	
	TOTAL	151	237	142	129	648	185

The figures show that whilst the number of government and local body schools has risen from 668 to 777 during 1956-57 to 1957-58, the corresponding rise in private aided schools has been from 142 to 185 during the same period. This works at a rise of 16.5 per cent in the case of government and local body schools and 30 per cent in the case of private aided schools. In relation to the total rise in schools the private bodies show a rise of 28 per cent, and the government and local bodies 72 per cent. Private bodies run the following types of schools:

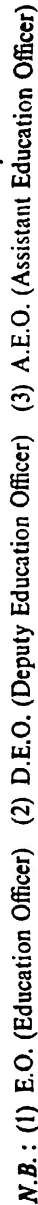
1. PRIVATE AIDED AND RECOGNISED. This type of school receives aid and is recognised by the Board of Secondary Education or the Directorate of Education, Delhi. These schools have to abide by all the rules and regulations enforced by the Department. They have also to follow the syllabus laid down by the Department. At present their number is 59 primary, 35 middle and 91 High and Higher Secondary.

2. PRIVATE RECOGNISED BUT NOT AIDED. These schools seek recognition, but do not accept any grant. They are consequently not subject to the Departmental rules in regard to all matters except in matter of syllabus. The number of such schools is limited to a few.

3. CAMBRIDGE TYPE. - These schools also are recognised but not aided. They follow the Syllabus of the Cambridge Certificate Examination. The medium of instruction continues to be English. These schools are also limited in number.

The work of private schools has been and continues to be good. The aided schools get very generous grants—95 per cent of the net approved expenditure and 62.2 per cent of non-recurring expenditure.

SCHEDULE (A)
E. O. & D. E. O.



LOCAL BODIES

Prior to 1958, there were ten local bodies and district boards in the Union Territory. On the establishment of the Delhi Municipal Corporation by an Act of the Parliament in December 1957, seven of these were merged with the Municipal Corporation. There are now only three local bodies, viz., the Delhi Municipal Corporation, the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Board. Of these, the Municipal Corporation is by far the largest in size and has a population of about twenty-two lakhs. It has also a regularly constituted Department of Education. On the deliberative side, there is a committee called the Education Committee. The functions of the committee are advisory. It advises the Corporation on matters of policy and the executive head carries out the policy. The executive head of the Corporation is the Municipal Commissioner. The Department is headed by an officer called the Education Officer. He has a hierarchy of officers under him. The Department was re-organised a few months back. The re-organised set up is given on the opposite chart.

Till this year, the New Delhi Municipal Committee did not have a separate Department of Education. Education was administered by the Municipal Secretary. But, now a separate education officer has been appointed.

The New Delhi Municipal Committee also has an Education Committee. The Director of Education is a nominated member of the Committee and is also a member of the Education Committee.

Delhi Cantonment Board does not have any separate department of education. The board is too small to have a separate department. The Director of Education is the adviser to this body also. The schools are managed by the Secretary of the Board.

The Director of Education, Delhi Territory has to play a direct advisory role in the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi Cantonment Board.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND FIVE-YEAR PLANS

The impact of Five-Year Plans on Delhi has been comprehensive and profound. In fact, the millions of uprooted refugees that had come to Delhi as a result of the partition needed the healing touch of planned development. The First Five-Year Plan made a humble beginning in this direction. It allocated an amount of Rs. 7.5 crores for schemes related to agriculture and rural development, industries and labour, education, health and transport. Out of this amount nearly Rs. 400 lakhs were allocated to education. The Second Five-Year Plan was double in size of the first, being of the order of Rs. 1,697.36

lakhs. Out of this Rs. 854.95 lakhs were allotted to social services. During the first four years, nearly Rs. 694.02 lakhs were spent. The total allocation to Delhi for the Third Plan period is. Delhi Administration (Rs. 2,479.13 lakhs), Municipal Corporation (Rs. 5120.60 lakhs) and N.D.M.C. (Rs. 305.37 lakhs). Out of this, an amount of Rs. 1,261.08 lakhs has been set apart for education. The distribution of the amount is as under: general education (Rs. 684.48 lakhs), technical education (Rs. 114.50 lakhs), Municipal Corporation (Rs. 436.60 lakhs) and N.D.M.C. (Rs. 25.50 lakhs).

The main schemes under the Second Plan relate to providing additional educational facilities at the primary, junior Basic middle or senior Basic and higher secondary school levels. The schemes also relate to improvement programmes of existing Basic schools, conversion of non-basic schools into the Basic pattern, introduction of higher secondary system on a general scale and conversion of higher secondary schools into multipurpose schools, as well as improvement programmes of teaching science and of libraries. The scheme also relates to social education, its expansion and improvement.

A major difficulty in Delhi about expansion programmes has been the paucity of buildings and lands for schools. The Plan consequently sets apart Rs. 1,30,00,000 out of a total allocation of Rs. 3,80,00,000 or 34 per cent for the construction of school buildings alone.

In the Third Five-Year Plan, the main schemes are (1) introduction of compulsory education by the Municipal Corporation and other local bodies, (2) capital works, (3) improvement programmes of Basic and non-basic schools, (4) orientation and conversion programmes, (5) expansion programmes at middle and higher secondary levels, (6) conversion of higher secondary schools into multipurpose institutions, (7) improvement programmes in the fields of science and school libraries, and grants to educational and cultural programmes.

TRIPURA

SRI J. C. BANERJI

INTRODUCTION

Tripura was a princely state in pre-independence days, and hence any account of administration of education in this territory naturally divides itself into two parts -- administration of education (a) during the rule of the Maharajas and (b) during the post-independence days. None of the phases can be isolated from each other so far as education particularly is concerned, for although the transfer of power in 1947 marks out a distinctive landmark in the political evolution of the State, the pattern of education and its administration in essence have neither been shaken up in keeping with the magnitude of political changes nor cast off extensively from their past moorings. It is perhaps a truism to say that having the introduction of three-year degree course and widening the concept and scope of secondary education, our prevailing educational structure has not basically very much deviated from what it was during the days immediately preceding independence. There is surely no denying the fact that Tripura that was one of the most backward areas in the country has made a remarkable leeway in the sphere of education just within a brief span of some ten years following its integration into the Indian Union in 1949. More schools have been set up, enrolment figures at all levels of education have stepped up, supervisory staff augmented and bigger resources made available by the federal government. To speak of primary education alone as an instance, in 1943-46 the number of primary schools was 123 and percentage of enrolment was 7.9 of the total primary school-age children¹ but just ten years later in 1956 (at the end of the First Five-Year Plan) the number of schools was raised to 946 and enrolment figures went upto 59 per cent. The number of pupils increased from 5,115 to 59,662 during the same period.² At the end of the second plan period in 1960-61, the number of schools went upto 1,072 and enrolment figures stood at 80,967.³ The same tempo of expansion can be witnessed in other spheres of education too. This increasing momentum of endeavour naturally implies bigger

¹ *Tippura State Administration Report*, 1943-46. p. 26.

² *Tripura Administration. Progress of Education in Tripura*, 1957. pp. 4-6

³ Public Relations Department. *Tripura Administration: Tripura On The March*, 1962. p. 53.

organisation, wider supervision, finer streamlining, greater finances and a fuller adequacy both of the administrative structure and personnel. This comparative vigour and vastness apart, the basic administrative structure and pattern of education in this territory have not substantially differed from what it was during the princely regime. There is nothing unnatural about it. Our present educational structure is after all an inheritance from the past and whatever educational ideas Tripura tried to work out during the rule of the Maharajas were borrowed from British India — mostly from Bengal, primarily in view of geographical proximity and secondly the fact that retired government officials were often recruited from Bengal to key administrative posts in the State. Thus the pattern of general administration in this erstwhile native state had something very much in common with what existed in the former Indian provinces. Whether that old set-up was adequate enough for or responsive to the needs of mass education is of course a different matter and surely open to question; but so far as educational administration is concerned, this should be noted at the outset that the princely regime did have a structure of administration with a well-defined hierarchy to look after educational matters in the State. And this machinery did work right upto the advent of the plan period. As educational activities in the State grew enormously in volume and intensity in the post-independence era and specially after the launching of the national five-year plans, this machinery had to be enlarged and remodelled to meet the growing needs of the new times on the one hand and to set a pattern of general uniformity in the administrative machinery in relation to other parts of the country on the other.

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION DURING THE PRINCELY REGIME

INTRODUCTION. — While in the country at large the subject of educational administration as a field of special study is of much recent origin, it is too much to expect in a small native state like Tripura a streamlined administrative machinery to discharge the deep social functions of education. The one difficulty that confronts a recorder of the early stages of educational development in Tripura is the lack of source materials. It has to be remembered that Tripura was a small state among the native states of India with a small revenue and an obscure geographical location that kept her off from the general gaze of public attention. Besides, the British Indian Government had no formal treaty engagement with the Tripura Durbar which naturally made the former a bit disinterested in the internal affairs of the State — specially during the consolidatory period of viceregal dispensation.¹ It is relevant to note here that while Tripura was subjugated by British forces in 1761, no political agent was appointed for the State till 1871 — and this eventua-

¹ C. U. Aitchison. *Treaties, Engagements and Sanads*, 1862, Vol. I. p. 77.

lity too was necessitated, not as a matter of routine, but by predatory raids on adjoining British Indian territory by tribal Lusheis reported to be residing in the State's dominion.¹ It is, therefore, idle to expect in such a state a thorough system of educational administration with the modern outfit of information and publicity. So, whatever might have been the nature of administration it is a task indeed to trace out systematic records for relevant information. The earliest mention about modern education in Tripura is found in the Bengal Administration Report of 1876-77, wherein it is stated that 'the prospects of education in Hill Tipperah are not bright, only 186 pupils now attend six schools against 173 attending four schools in the previous year.'² That the position did not very much improve during the next few decades will be evident from the following account

Education is very backward, and in 1901 only 2.3 per cent of the population could read and write. In 1903 the number of pupils under instruction was 3,125 (boys 3,008 and girls 117). The number of schools in the same year was 103, including an arts college, a secondary school, 99 primary schools, and two special schools.³

COLLEGIATE AND SECONDARY EDUCATION — We find here a mention of an arts college, it should be noted here that the life of the college was very short and it had to be closed down just within few years of its coming into existence because 'the policy of the authorities of the Calcutta University was against the establishment of such institutions in small towns in the mofussil'.⁴ Right upto 1947 Tripura had no college of her own. The long-felt need of a degree college was met in 1947-48, when Tripura had her full-fledged government college after accession of the State to the Indian Union. Regarding secondary education, it may be recorded that upto 1916 there was only one high school in the State with two feeder branches running up to the eighth grade in two subdivisional headquarters. The position about Tripura's educational development becomes significantly clear when one gets at the fact that till 1943 the State had not a single girls' high school. At the time of accession, the State had nine secondary schools in all with an enrolment of 2,397 pupils. All the secondary schools were government managed and affiliated to the University of Calcutta. Teachers were either recruited from Bengal or local teachers were sent to Bengal for training. It was in 1954 that Tripura had her first Basic training institute.

PRIMARY EDUCATION *Enrolment* — The following figures will give an idea about the progress of enrolment at the primary stage during the period 1906-46

¹ W. W. Hunter *Statistical Account of Hill Tipperah*, 1876 p. 470

² *Bengal Administration Report*, 1876-77 pp. 17-18

³ W. W. Hunter *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. XIII p. 1,122

⁴ A. C. Bhattacharyya *Progressive Tripura*, 1930 p. 47

TABLE 86

Primary Education in Tripura, 1907-08 to 1947-48*

Year	Number of schools	Number of pupils	Percentage of primary children to total school-going population
1907-08	137	4,011	18.5
1916-17	125	4,842	16.5
1926-27	139	4,215	10.6
1936-37	111	5,110	7.9
1943-46	123	5,115	7.9

Tippera State Administration Reports, 1906-46.

The figures are no doubt revealing. It appears that while the number of pupils increased from 4,011 in 1907-08 to 5,115 in 1943-46, the percentage of primary children of the total school-going population decreased from 18.5 to 7.9. One possible explanation may be that educational facilities were not augmented in proportion to the increase in population. This view has been indirectly upheld in the Tripura Census Report of 1931.¹ Another view held firmly by some retired officials of the State is that figures stated in the official reports upto the twenties can hardly be accepted as authentic, since they leaned heavily towards over statement. Whatever may be the reasons, the fact remains that educational facilities were not adequate.

Syllabus. — Regarding the content of education, no reliable record is available. It is reasonable to suppose that the State had no primary syllabus of its own. Primary schools in Tripura as a matter of fact followed the same primary syllabus as existed in Bengal from time to time. As things stood up to the accession, one can infer that emphasis was given solely on the 3 R's, while in the middle English schools there was some smattering of English along with mother-tongue and arithmetic.

Teacher Education. — Teaching at the primary stage was done mostly by teachers, who had not passed any public examination, not to speak of any professional training. The only interesting feature of professional improvement was a competitive examination introduced in 1912-13 for the teachers of primary schools. This was purely a departmental examination. The candidates were examined in "Literature, Arithmetic and Art of Teaching and Class Management, there being a practical examination in the last mentioned

subject. Only 4 out of 20 candidates came out successfully, in the first and the rest in the second division, and the first two...received money rewards. It is hoped that a large number of teachers will go in for the examination next year, as *success in the examination has been made a condition for increment of pay and promotion.*"¹ It may be pointed out that although the teachers were required to sit for this examination that governed the prospects of their promotion and increment, no organisation was evolved to make any provision of their in-service training which obviously should precede this sort of examination. No wonder therefore that instances of failure were pretty heavy, for the uninitiated teachers were possibly left free to put forward their own original ideas about the 'art of teaching' and 'class management'. But since this was the only door a teacher had to cross through in order to make him 'professionally qualified', as we may put it today, the scheme instead of fizzling out dragged on a precarious existence for some time. Eventually, it was discontinued in view of poor response from teachers.

Compulsory Primary Education. — A great step of far-reaching administrative importance was taken in 1932-33 when compulsory primary education was introduced in the state capital — Agartala — under the State Act 2 of 1932.² The very scope of the Act and the way it was handled throw significant light on the nature of the administrative process that was responsible for its enactment and implementation. The scope of the Act was very limited, for it was confined only to the municipal town of Agartala and meant for covering only 866 primary school-going children within the age-group of 5-12.³ There can be in fact not much of difference between compulsory education and voluntary education when the total number to be roped in is just 866 and that also in the state capital. The scheme had historic possibilities, but it was neither earnestly pursued nor extended in other areas with the consequence that for all practical purposes the Act was reduced almost to a paper effort. Apart from the very negligible area of operation of the Act, what baffles our interest in the subject from the standpoint of administration is that no literature is available at all on how the procedure of compulsion was enforced, how attendance was improved, on what grounds exemption was granted, if fines were imposed how they were realised, and so on. This also is not known if the authorities faced any special problems in enforcing compulsion — even though in the municipal area — and if so, how they tried to solve them. Compulsory education cannot be introduced merely by legislation; it is only some determined follow-up activities carried through by a team of inspired

¹ *Tripura State Administration Report*, 1912-13. p. 25

² *Tippera State Administration Report*, 1932-33. p. 35.

³ Government of Tripura. *Census Report*, 1931. p. 43.

attendance officers that can put life into the law. This total lack of literature on the vital problems of compulsion therefore leads one to infer that compulsory education was placed in the statute book perhaps more as an act of royal condescension than careful academic planning. Thus what could have been a historic educational enterprise silently slipped into obscurity with none talking much about compulsion at all in later days.

FINANCE. — Primary education had all along been free in Tripura during the Rajas' days and all expenditure on this account was borne by the State. Except the state exchequer, there was no other source of educational income. Private contribution was literally nil in the past. It is stated in the Tripura Census Report of 1931 that during the decennium 1920-30 the average annual expenditure on primary education roughly worked upto 11 per cent of the total education budget.¹ As we have stated earlier, Tripura had no collegiate education during the princely regime. Secondary education too was not having a very vigorous life, for there were only 6 secondary schools for a total population of 3,82,163. So education in Tripura at that period meant only primary education in its different categories. But even then only 11 per cent of the total education budget were spent on primary education. The question naturally arises as to how the money was spent and on which items of education. A study of the provision of finance, different sources of income and the methods of its expenditure enables one to have an unerring insight into the very nature of the administrative process that controls education at a given time. Viewed in this light one is led to believe that there existed a great imbalance in the allocation of funds for different stages of education, which in its turn reflects not only a lack of correct appraisal of the vital needs and interests but also the practice of lopsided expenditure for those items of education which covered only a selected section of the population.

Upto 1915-16 education in Tripura in all its branches had been free, but in order "to encourage self-help and also to make provision for the various needs of the students... a scale of fees was introduced only in the high English schools from the beginning of the year (1916-17)... It may be noted that except the high English schools all other kinds of schools are free and even at the high English schools the indigenous inhabitants of the state, e.g., the Thakurs, the Tripuras, the Manipuris and the hill people have been exempted from paying fees."² This token introduction of fees hardly made any substantial contribution to the educational revenue, because there could not be any general expansion of education in the State. It was, therefore, government funds in the ultimate analysis that

¹ Government of Tripura. *Census Report* (1931). p. 41

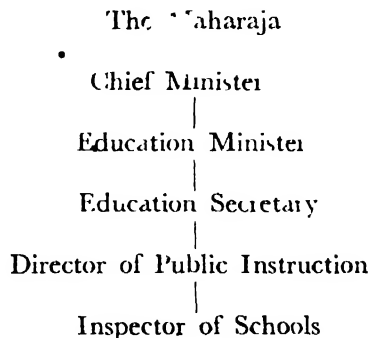
² *Tripura State Administration Report*, 1916-17. p. 24

had to account for all expenditure on education. The scope of expansion was thus limited and this explains why the percentage of literacy in Tripura was only 6.1 even as late as, in 1941.¹

A striking feature about the development of education in Tripura is the total absence of private enterprise. In the post-1947 era, as the urge for education has become stronger, local initiative is forthcoming and today one may find a number of leading institutions managed by private bodies. But private enterprise can be said to have been nil during the old days. It will be a mistake to suppose that the political set-up of the State was alone responsible for this. Other factors contributing to this unhappy development are: geography, socio-economic conditions, population factors and undeveloped communication system, etc.

THE MACHINERY OF ADMINISTRATION. — As goes without saying, administration was highly centralised during the rule of the Rajas, and this was quite natural in view of the political history of the State and its small size — only 4,116 square miles — that is even less than most of the districts in other parts of the country.

An important landmark in the development of constitutional reforms in Tripura was created in 1939 when a *mantri parishad* or Council of Ministers was constituted by the Maharaja consisting of a chief minister and other ministers not exceeding ten in number, "each minister holding independent charge of a portfolio, with specified individual powers of disposal in respect of such departments of the government as His Highness may from time to time be pleased to direct..."² Following the composition of a cabinet, the portfolio of education was placed under the charge of a minister. The administrative machinery thus took the following shape:



¹ Public Relations Department *Tripura Administration: Tripura On The March*, 1961. p. 8.

² *Tippura State Administration Report*, 1937-40. p. 2.

It will be seen from the above that the administrative hierarchy is more or less the same as obtaining in other parts of the country. The Education Minister was the head of the Education Department. He was responsible only to the Maharaja, while the Chief Minister functioning as the president of the *mantri parishad* had advisory powers over the Education Minister in cases of difficulty, complications or interdepartmental conflict. The minister was assisted in his day-to-day work by the Education Secretary. Since the functions of the Secretary and the D.P.I. do not appear to have been specifically defined, it is reasonable to suppose that administration was carried on more on the basis of convention than rules and perhaps the office of the D.P.I. was more or less an appendage of the Education Department. Similarly there was no separate inspectorate of education. As a matter of fact there was only one inspector of schools in Tripura with three sub-inspectors under him at the time of accession in 1947. As goes without saying the last word on any matter of policy planning and finance lay finally with the Maharaja. As stated earlier, there was no collegiate education in Tripura. Even at the primary and secondary stages, voluntary effort was conspicuous by absence. The climate for the growth of local bodies was yet to become ripe which explains why Tripura has not been able even today to build up a tradition of local enterprise in the development of education. Administration of education was thus completely centralised, and as for any advisory bodies, even the possibility of having them can well be ruled out as too ambitious a measure to fit in with the administrative tradition of a small native state where education possibly was looked upon more as an act of benevolence than abiding public duty.

EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION. - The earliest mention about inspection of schools is made in the State Administration Report of 1908-09. It says 'Towards the end of the year the government Inspector of Schools of the Chittagong Division was deputed by the Syndicate of the Calcutta University to hold an inspection of the school (the first secondary school) as regards its fitness for the continuance of its recognition under the new university regulations.'¹ The State had no suitable inspecting staff for the secondary schools at that time.

For the primary schools, however, there were sub-inspectors of schools. But their number was inadequate. So inspection work had to be shared by Revenue Officers and Forest Officers also. While in the year 1943-46 there were 148 schools besides the *tols* and *madrassahs*, the number of sub-inspectors was only three.² To neutralise the shortage of inspecting officers, the headmaster of the first government secondary school was given powers to inspect other schools of lower standard. It was indeed a novel system to utilise

¹ *Tippura State Administration Report*, 1908-09. p. 27.

² *Tippura State Administration Report*, 1943-46 p. 73.

the services of experienced headmasters for inspection purposes when there was a dearth of personnel. The system deserves a trial in our country at the present moment, when gigantic schemes of educational expansion are in the offing involving millions of pupils and a huge supervisory staff to activate the plans. That Tripura had no well-organised supervisory staff even in the second decade of the century will be evident from the following account:

The high English schools and a few primary and secondary institutions were inspected by the Chief Dewan, the Officer-in-Charge of the Revenue Department of the State during their tours.¹

One is led to believe that these high dignitaries included school inspection too in their normal work undertaken during tours. It was only in the late twenties that the State had a supervisory staff with an inspector of schools and two sub-inspectors. The number of sub-inspectors was eventually raised to three in the thirties. But even then inspection was often done by outsiders, sometimes even by the political agent specially at the secondary level.

Particular mention may be made of some significant administrative measures taken by the late rulers to popularise education among the tribal communities and some backward classes and to attract them to it. These were chiefly to offer year after year cash reward to each tribal child of indigent families attending school and secondly to appoint an educational inspector whose primary duty was to carry education to the door of the backward communities. These measures assume special significance at the present moment when compulsory education is so much in the air with its vital concomitant problems of incentive and enforcement of attendance. True, the measures adopted by the Maharajas were not adequate for the task, but even then it was a step in the right direction which leaves for us a meaning and suggests a practical line of action which may be felt indispensably necessary in Tripura in the procedure to enforce compulsion.

CONCLUSION. — An objective assessment of educational development during the royal regime will reveal that progress of education was not planned for the State as a whole; there were dark spots here and there and things left much scope for general improvement. Education was sporadic; there were some bright spots on the crests, but deep down the crevices darkness prevailed. Administration of education at its virtuous best implies a number of functions — planning, organisation, direction, co-ordination and control; and in order to give real meaning and purpose to administrative actions its vital source materials are drawn from the social sciences, law, the technique of administration and the science

¹ *Ibid*, 1915-16. p. 25.

and art of education.¹ From whichever angle we may review the old administration, we shall hardly come across any outstanding principle of action or a striking example of achievement or a bold and imaginative policy sustaining the entire ambit of education. There was no doubt an Education Department, but its activities fell far short of expectations and needs, as will be evident from the data stated earlier. Instead of formulating an independent educational policy of its own in the light of distinctive regional needs, the State simply copied the policies as formulated in British India from time to time, and hence the same ills that afflicted Indian education during the alien rule tended to prejudice the progress of Tripura's education too. Secondly, there was no attempt to build the State's educational edifice from the bottom upwards. Believing perhaps in the 'downward filtration theory' that education was to 'permeate the masses from above', they created schools mostly in the capital town or its close vicinity and the subdivisional headquarters in order to cater to the needs of the privileged few, while the vast rural areas where more than 90 per cent of the population live even today, were left almost a 'thirsty plain' to be 'irrigated' gradually by the 'trickle of learning' from above in course of time. The effect of this depressing theory has been that while the few people belonging to the upper social stratum had the advantage of modern education with other accompanying benefits, the general masses have been gradually cut off from the vital driving forces of society. If there is any single factor responsible for the present physical and cultural isolation of our rural populace, it is the lack of education resulting from this pernicious doctrine and the consequent gradual estrangement between those whose privilege it was to command and those whose lot it was to carry out. Moreover, it is to be emphasised that basically Tripura's educational problems were, and still are, the problems of rural education. And an overwhelming percentage of the rural population consists of backward communities and tribal people, some of whom are still living an outlandish way of life in the unbreaking solitude of the forests, and whose education therefore poses problem peculiar to their distinctive tribal ways of life.

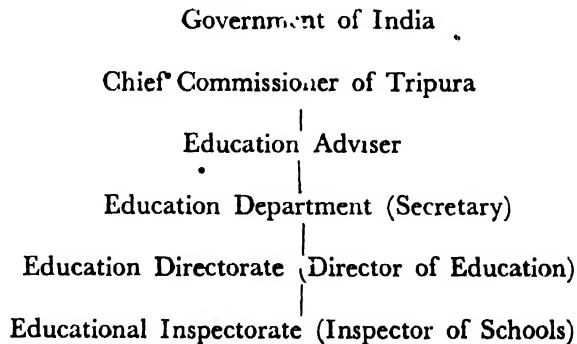
ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA

INTRODUCTION. — Administration of education in Tripura in the post-independence period has been more or less in a state of flux owing to the changing political set-up and the resultant administrative reorganisation. The old order is no more and the new order is still in the process of evolution, and hence tradition is necessarily to be a new-comer on the administrative scene under the changed set-up.

THE BEGINNING OF CHANGE (THE ADVISORY REGIME). — It may be convincingly said that Tripura stepped into a new chapter of her history when she acceded to the Indian Union

¹ J. B. Sears. *The Nature of the Administrative Process*. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1950. pp. 488-92.

on August 13, 1947 and was finally integrated into it on October 15, 1949. On January 23, 1950 Tripura became a Chief Commissioner's Province (Part C State) in terms of the State's Merger (Chief Commissioners' Provinces) Order of 1950.¹ Soon after the first general elections, a significant change took place in the political set-up of the State. For progressive realisation of the democratic ideals of a national government through association of the people's representatives with the administration of the State, a Council of Advisers was appointed for Tripura by the Government of India on April 14, 1953 in terms of the Tripura (Council of Advisers) Order of 1953.² The Council consisted of three advisers, each adviser having under him more than one subject on which to tender advice to the Chief Commissioner. The Advisory Regime continued upto August 1957.* This period is important for more than one reason from the standpoint of our present discourse. This period saw the first major administrative reorganisation in Tripura under the national government. This reorganisation was necessary in view of not only the great changeover in New Delhi but also the new responsibilities that the State was called upon to face and carry out as a result of the introduction of the national developmental plans. This period is important particularly because for the first time it witnessed the birth of a full-fledged Education Directorate in Tripura as a separate establishment. It has been stated earlier that during the princely regime there was a D.P.I. in Tripura but his was not a separate establishment and he had to work in the Education Department. It was on April 1, 1953 that the Education Directorate came into existence under specific orders from the Government of India. Similarly an educational inspectorate too was set up during this period. In 1953 when the Education Directorate came into existence, the posts of the Education Secretary and Director of Education were held by separate individuals. The administrative machinery during this period was as follows:



¹ *Tripura Gazette, (Extraordinary Issue)*, February 4, 1950. p. 5.

² *Ibid.*, April 4, 1953. p. 7.

These separate establishments had been long overdue. But these were not created during the old regime possibly because the volume of educational activities did not justify such a creation and secondly because the Education Department alone was considered adequate both for framing of policies and their implementation. As work on the First Five-Year Plan commenced in Tripura, a single Department of Education could not naturally be considered adequate for achieving the new targets. Thus there was further streamlining — the Department setting the pattern, approving schemes, providing finance, corresponding with the Government of India, and the Directorate looking after implementation, exercising control, organising supervision and administration, providing personnel and so on. This period is again important because it laid the real basis of educational administration at a time when new and diverse schemes of development were undertaken on a scale never witnessed before. It saw the conclusion of the First Five-Year Plan and the commencement of the second one. It is relevant to mention here that while in the First Plan Tripura had a total allocation of Rs. 30.5 lakhs under education, in the Second Plan the amount was raised to Rs. 112.16 lakhs.¹ This itself gives an idea of the scope of expanding administrative responsibilities. Thus this period prepared the ground for further take-off in different fields of educational consolidation.

An adviser assisted the Chief Commissioner in discharge of his functions under Article 239 of the Constitution subject to the Standing Orders of the President regulating the conduct and disposal of the official business of the Chief Commissioner. The Adviser was primarily responsible for the disposal of the business of the department under him. According to the advice of the Government of India, the adviser in charge of a department should dispose of the business allotted to his department more or less in the same manner as a minister in a Part C State. This, however, did not "give the advisers the status or the powers which a minister would exercise in a Part C State. A Council of Ministers aids and advises the Chief Commissioner while a Council of Advisers assists the Chief Commissioner."² The Council of Advisers submitted to the Chief Commissioner *inter alia* the following classes of cases before issue of orders:

1. cases raising questions of policy and all cases of major importance;
2. all proposals for framing statutory rules;
3. proposals relating to abolition or creation of posts; and
4. all proposals which will either immediately or by their repercussion affect the finances of the State.³

¹ Publicity Department. *Tripura Administration: Tripura On The March*, 1960. p. 8,

² *Records in the Political Department*. Tripura Administration, Agartala.

³ *Ibid.*

It is thus clear that the adviser could whenever necessary offer counsel to the Chief Commissioner on all matters of education regarding plan, policy, finance and personnel. His chief contribution perhaps lay in weighing the educational policy and proposals as framed by the departmental experts with an air of detachment and in giving to the Chief Commissioner his unbiassed opinion thereon, so as to strike a balance between subjective thinking of the departmental experts and the disinterested viewpoint of a non-official outsider. It is often argued that just the appointment of an adviser can hardly be expected to further the cause of democratic educational administration unless he is empowered with executive authority to set up the right policy for forestalling anything considered contrary to public interest. Every event of change however small and ineffectual in the short-term analysis has its long reach of possibility in the wider perspective and should be interpreted as such. In the development of educational administration in Tripura, this appointment of an adviser was the first major step in the right direction not so much for any spectacular achievement of results as for the vindication of the democratic rights of the people to be associated with the conduct of public affairs—a right that could not be exercised before the transfer of power.

ONE STEP FORWARD (THE TRIPURA TERRITORIAL COUNCIL) Tripura's life as a Part C State was short lived. As a result of reorganisation of States, Tripura became a Union Territory with effect from November 1, 1956. The Advisory Regime came to an end on August 14, 1957 when the Council of Advisers appointed in 1953 was dissolved¹. In its place was constituted the statutory body of Tripura Territorial Council (T.T.C.) in terms of the Territorial Councils Act (T.C. Act) of 1956 (Act 103 of 1956) passed by the Parliament of India. The Act came into force on January 1, 1957², and the Tripura Territorial Council (T.T.C.) was inaugurated on August 15, 1957. The formation of the Council may be said to be the first effective step towards laying the real basis of democracy in Tripura through universal adult franchise. There is a fresh reorganisation of administration and the subjects to be dealt with by the T.T.C. in terms of the T.T.C. Act were transferred from the normal government departments to the Council. Education is one of these subjects. Under the head 'Functions of Territorial Councils', Section VI of Clause 28 of the T.T.C. Act states that the following items of education are to be dealt with by the Council:

the establishment, maintenance, management of primary and secondary schools and the construction and repair of all buildings connected with these institutions, training of teachers and establishment of scholarships.

¹ Tripura Administration *Rep. on the Administration of the Union Territory of Tripura, 1957-58* p. 1.

² *Tripura Gazette (Extraordinary Issue)*, No. 75 dated 22-8-1957.

According to this provision, all primary and secondary schools of Tripura except five senior Basic schools (for specific purposes) were transferred to the Council. Implementation of most of the plan schemes also in respect of primary and secondary education became the responsibility of the Council.¹ This transference took place on February 2, 1958. It was a major administrative change in Tripura's education and a fuller discussion on the subject will be made at the relevant place. As a result of the formation of the Territorial Council the people's representatives elected on universal adult franchise had for the first time in Tripura's history a forum of their own to conduct with real executive power, however limited, some vital services of public life in accordance with the wishes of the people. It also marked the first effective step toward decentralisation of administration.

THE PROSPECT. — Since February 1, 1958 education in Tripura has thus been going on under some sort of a dual system — (1) Education Department, Tripura Administration; and (2) Education Department, Tripura Territorial Council. While the latter looks after primary and secondary education including supervision, the former has retained such subjects as pre-primary education, collegiate education, teacher education, technical education, social education, etc. But it is heard that still greater political changes are in the offing involving another major administrative reorganisation and further devolution of power to local self-governing bodies. The T.T.C. has no legislative powers; the legislative authority of the territory vests in the Parliament of India and all the Central Acts and laws are generally applicable to this territory. Certain laws of the Rajas' times are still in force. In certain cases provincial laws also have been extended to Tripura by the President.² A demand is being voiced forth for some time past — not only in Tripura but elsewhere too — that the status of the Union Territories be modified and raised at par with the other major states of the Union. This is a momentous issue and it is at present under study of the relevant Central Ministries. It is believed that some sort of change shall take place in regard to the political future of Tripura, and when that happens administration of education too will undergo a corresponding change — in which form or content it is pointless to speculate.³

THE PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

INTRODUCTION. — We have so far followed the chronological method in recounting the development of educational administration in Tripura. This was considered necessary

¹ Publicity Department. *Tripura Administration: Tripura in 1958*. p. 7.

² Tripura Administration. *Annual Administration Report, 1960-61*. p. 2.

³ The Statesman (City Edition), Calcutta. *Union Territories Administration*. dated 5-6-62. p. 7.

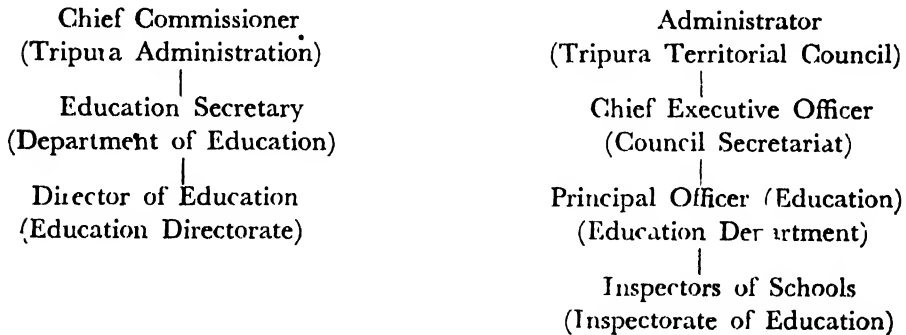
in order to provide a synoptic background view of the whole thing. A chronological account naturally skips over useful details, and hence we now propose to switch over to the topical treatment of some essential points of the subject-matter. The present administrative set-up in relation to education may be described as follows:

THE PRESIDENT

(Government of India)

- (a) Ministry of Education
- (b) Ministry of Scientific Research & Cultural Affairs

Union Territory of Tripura



SUBJECTS

<p>Nursery Education, Teacher Education, Post-secondary Education (different kinds—Collegiate, Technical Education, etc.) Social and Hindi Education</p>	<p>Primary Education, Basic Education, Secondary Education (all categories), Educational Supervision, Grant-in-aid to Private Primary/Secondary Schools</p>
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GOVERNMENT OF INDIA. — Since Tripura is a Union Territory, the role of the Union Government is naturally more active and direct than what it is in relation to the States of the Union. The Seventh Schedule, Lists I and II of the Constitution of India has vested the responsibility of education in the state governments, while the entries 62-66 of List I and entry 25 of List III have restricted the role of the Government of India to a number of specific items—one of which “Financing, directing and controlling of education in the Union Territories.” When it lies within the powers of the Centre to provide necessary

finance, to issue directives and exercise control — and these obviously ramify into a lot of administrative details — what naturally is left for the local authorities to look after are matters of planning, organisation and execution. It is the task of the local departments to draw plans and initiate proposals; it is the responsibility of the Central Government to approve and finance them. It goes without saying that much of the real initiative rests with the local authorities, who are familiar with the objective conditions. And since federal assistance for expanding education and equalisation of educational opportunities have in recent times been enormously increasing, never does an occasion arise when the exercise of remote control by New Delhi may be construed more as an act of hindrance than as a factor of help to educational progress in Tripura.

FINANCE. — In recent years Tripura's progress in education has been phenomenal. Some figures are given below only in respect of primary education where the scope of activity is the biggest:

TABLE 87
Primary Education, Tripura, 1950-61*

Item	1950	1961
Number of primary schools	404	1072
Number of pupils	19,166	30,967
Number of teachers	560	2,800
Percentage of enrolment	29 per cent	71 per cent
Number of training colleges	—	3

* Figures have been taken from Administration Reports and Government Publications.

The above progress could be achieved only because of lavish federal assistance. Tripura's own resources are very meagre—so meagre that left to herself she cannot even dream of any large-scale development in the modern sense. Her budget deficit is more than 90 per cent and it is covered by the Centre. The following budgets will explain:

TABLE 88
Tripura's Budget Position

Year	Expenditure	Own Resources	Percentage Deficit
1957-58 ¹	Rs. 3,83,09,000	Rs. 37,09,000	90.3
1958-59	Rs. 4,82,80,719	Rs. 39,78,622	91.8
1959-60	Rs. 5,76,03,400	Rs. 35,51,000	93.8
1960-61	Rs. 6,45,89,000	Rs. 39,58,000	93.8

¹ Tripura Administration Reports: 1957-58. (p. 16); 1958-59 (p. 34); 1959-60 (pp. 28-29); 1960-61 (pp. 15-16).

It is thus obvious that the financial responsibilities of Tripura's education have to be borne by the Central Government for an indefinite period of time to come. How far it is possible for Tripura to be a viable state with diverse administrative liabilities may better be imagined than described in the light of her present financial position. The point is—how far it is possible to augment internal resources so as to draw as least as possible from the Central funds. Generally there are five sources of finance for education—(a) federal funds, (b) state funds, (c) local funds, (d) fees and (e) other sources—that is, voluntary contributions. Tripura is not a state and she has little or no possibility of being one in the immediate future. So the prospect of raising funds is bleak, when her internal revenue covers not even 10 per cent of her annual expenditure. Regarding the local bodies, Tripura has little tradition of local self-government. The only municipality in the territory—Agartala Municipality—has been under government control since 1955 when the municipal commissioners resigned *en bloc*.¹ The formation of the Tripura Territorial Council has of course been a great step toward the growth of local self-government. But the T.T.C. too is running on a huge deficit and without grants from the Central Government it cannot hold its own. In 1960-61 whereas its own revenue roughly amounted to Rs. 17 lakhs, the amount of grant it received from the Centre for execution of work reached as high as Rs. 184 lakhs.² As for the *panchayats*, they are just coming into existence in Tripura. They have yet to outlive the stage of infancy. Moreover it is understood that the '*Panchayats* in Tripura are not likely to be viable units', and provision has to be made for aiding them 'in the form of grant and loans for developing local economy'.³ It is therefore hardly possible for them to make any effective contribution toward raising of finance for education which, be it noted here, has already become the third major head of expenditure next to construction works and law and order. If compulsion is embarked upon at the primary stage, education shall naturally be the first charge of the territory's budget. Regarding fees it may be noted that in the Classes I-VIII (age-group 6-14) where enrolment is the maximum, education for all students in all the schools of Tripura has been made free by the Government of India with effect from April 1, 1960⁴. And voluntary contribution is almost absent in Tripura. Thus if for nothing else, at least for finance alone, the involvement of the Central Government has to be pretty heavy in the development and administration of education in Tripura for a long time to come.

¹ Tripura Administration. *Annual Administration Report, 1960-61*. p. 106.

² *Ibid.* p. 112.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 62.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 37.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER. — The administration of the Union Territory of Tripura is carried on on behalf of the President by an Administrator with the designation of Chief Commissioner. Being a Union Territory there is no such thing as 'Government of Tripura', but instead there is 'Tripura Administration', 'Government' being the Government of India itself. He is also the Administrator of the Tripura Territorial Council that was set up in August 1957 and to which certain administrative subjects had been transferred.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT. — The Education Secretary is the head of the Education Department. He is also the Director of Education and head of the Education Directorate. Tripura has thus a Director-cum-Secretary at present, the Director of Education (D.E.) being the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Education Department. Before 1958, these two offices had been held by two different individuals.

The Director of Education, Tripura, is a Class I officer. He is assisted by two deputy directors (youth and women's programmes), one social welfare officer (children's homes and infirmaries), one special officer (technical education), one inspector of schools, one special officer for primary and Basic education and one inspector of social education.

TRIPURA TERRITORIAL COUNCIL . Education Department. — We have briefly touched upon the emergence of the Tripura Territorial Council as an institution of local self-government to be run by elected representatives in matters of certain subjects transferred to it from the Tripura Administration. For administering the transferred items of education (primary and secondary education, inspection, grant-in-aid, scholarship examination, etc.), the T.T.C. has its own Education Department. This Education Department may be called the counterpart of the Education Directorate within the Council. Like the the Education Directorate, it is also the main spring of educational activities within the Council. It has to formulate development plans and initiate proposals. It has to possess both technical and social competence to harmonise its plans and policies with practical possibilities. And since successful planning can be based only on objective data, it has to emphasise on constant stock-taking in all aspects of the operation of the education plan. The Education Department of the Council plays a major role in education of the territory and shares the main burden of educational activities. It is one of the biggest spending departments not only in the Council but in the Administration as well. While the expenses of the Education Department of the Administration amounted to Rs. 38,98,505 in 1960-61, those of the Education Department of the Council reached Rs. 93,56,489.

This signifies that the major volume of educational activities is still confined to primary and secondary education.

The Principal Officer (Education) is the head of the Education Department of the Territorial Council. The appointment of the Principal Officer is made by the Council with the approval of the Administrator.¹ He is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Council and through him to the Chairman of the Council. He is assisted by one deputy principal officer, nine inspectors of schools, one special officer for pilot project (free and universal primary education) and one rehabilitation officer (education).

The Chief Executive Officer. — The Chief Executive Officer of TTC is appointed by the Administrator and he is the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Council. He is the Head of the General Administration Department of the Council that is in fact the Council Secretariat. As Secretary to the Council he has large administrative and financial powers over all the subordinate offices of the Council—one of which is the Education Department. All financial powers of the Council are centralised in the CEO. He is in fact the only officer in the Council, who has been empowered by the T.T.C. Act to draw money and transact account of the Council. The subordinate offices of the Council cannot make any independent cash transactions unless money is drawn for them by the CEO.

* *The Standing Committee on Education.* — The Council may with the previous sanction of the Administrator, elect as many standing committees as it thinks fit for the exercise of any power or for discharging any function of the Council. The Chairman (of the Council) shall be *ex-officio* chairman of every such standing committee'.² The Standing Committee for the Education Department consisted of four elected members of the Council in 1960-61. The Standing Committee meets almost once every month on an average and deliberates on important matters of education in respect of plan, policy, finances, grant-in-aid and other allied matters. Apart from the general body of the Council where any relevant issue may be raised and discussed, this Standing Committee is in fact the main plank through which is ensured the active association of the people's elected representatives in the administration of education entrusted to the Council. The Standing Committee has no executive power. It is a recommendatory body. When, however, the Standing Committee succeeds with the passage of time in creating a powerful democratic convention through its weight and approach of work, as it surely will, it will not only be a useful in-

¹ *The Territorial Councils Act (1956), sub-sec (3), Sec. 32.*

² *The Territorial Council Rules (1957), Part II, Chapter IV, Sec. 25.*

strument of aid to the departmental officers but also set a pattern of decentralised administration in the territory.

The Educational Inspectorate. -- Below the Education Department, there is the inspectorate of the Council. There are ten subdivisions in Tripura. Nine zones have been created out of these subdivisions, each zone being under the charge of a zonal inspector of schools. It is relevant to note here that prior to the setting up of the Territorial Council and its Education Department, educational administration in the *mofussil* areas was to a large extent carried on by subdivisional officers. For this purpose, a small office had to be maintained in the S.D.O.'s office known as the 'Education Section'. This system, a legacy of the past, invariably led to dual control for employees of the Education Department outside the headquarters were answerable not only to their own departmental bosses but to the S.D.O. as well. Secondly, inspection work in the *mofussil* also could not be upto the mark as a result of this system. After all the S.D.O.'s have their own numerous preoccupations. This dependence on the S.D.O.'s office for control of education in the *mofussil* areas was a weak link in the administrative chain prior to the formation of the Council. Following its formation, it became necessary for the Council to have its own organisational network for control and supervision of education in the subdivisions. This has brought in homogeneity and identity of outlook and purpose and has set up a uniform administrative pattern in the sphere of educational inspection under one central coordinating agency.

While this has been a happy feature of administration under the Council, a new bottleneck has been created as a result of extreme centralisation of financial powers in the hands of the Chief Executive Officer. Under the T.T.G. Act, it is only this officer who shall conduct cash transactions of the Council either directly or through the subordinate offices. Not even he can draw any Council money, although he may be the head of a department. This is something unrealistic specially at a time when the territory stands at the threshold of an era of development with huge schemes to implement and ambitious targets to achieve, involving heavy expenditure. As it stands, the rule is sure to hinder swift disposal of work rather than help it. Rule 111 of the Territorial Councils Rules (1957) has no doubt empowered the chairman to accord expenditure sanction, put a certain limit in anticipation of the Council's approval, but this does not clarify whether the Council can delegate financial powers to an officer within the sanctioned budget. Without attempting any general examination of the Council's Act and Rules, this much may be said that neither of the documents appears to have been very carefully drafted

with an eye to the spirit of the times or practical administrative needs. It is learnt that changes in the Act and Rules are contemplated in the immediate future.

MANAGEMENT, RECOGNITION AND GRANT-IN-AID

PRIMARY EDUCATION. — Regarding the management of private primary schools, it may be said there are no approved rules. Managing committees are formed and approved generally on *ad hoc* basis for purposes of recognition and grant-in-aid. Recognition is also granted on *ad hoc* basis. This issue of recognition to primary schools is not a major one in view of the fact that in Tripura the number of private primary schools is only 44 as against 1,028 government schools (1960-61). Tripura's enrolment target at the primary stage is 93 per cent by the end of the Third Plan. For this achievement, the initiative is to be taken entirely by the government. This possibly explains why the issue of recognition is treated on the *ad hoc* basis.

Grant-in-aid (recurring) to primary schools was previously dealt with by the Education Directorate. Grant-in-aid rules were thus framed by the Directorate and approved by the Government of India—the effect being given to the rules from April 1, 1960. It is repeated that any administrative measure involving financial implications has to be approved by the Government of India. Work relating to the payment of grant-in-aid was however transferred to the Territorial Council with effect from August 1, 1960. It was also decided that the T.T.C. shall inspect these schools, 'subject to the overall power of inspection... by the Tripura Administration'.¹ The system of deficit grant is being followed in Tripura. A few important rules are given below²:

1. A school taking aid shall have to conform to the Department rules in all matters of school administration, subjects, curriculum, text-books, methods and standards of teaching; discipline, service conditions of teachers including their appointments, termination of their service etc. and shall abide by conditions that may be laid down by Directorate from time to time for the efficient working of the schools and their administration. If any of these conditions is not fulfilled, the Director of Education may withdraw the grant or reduce it. (Rule 3)

2. The minimum enrolment in a class or a section of a class shall not be less than 20 and the maximum shall not ordinarily exceed 40. (Rule 6)

3. The scale of pay and allowances and the qualifications of teachers will be the same as applicable to teachers of government schools of corresponding status. (Rule 11)

¹ *Tripura Gazette*, dated 9-8-60.

² *Ibid.*, No. 30, dated 23-7-60. pp. 1105-06.

4. A Primary/Junior Basic School may be given recurring grants upto 90 per cent of the difference between approved expenditure and income from fees. For purposes of income only the income from the following fees shall be taken into account: (i) Admission fee, (ii) Fines, (iii) Transfer Certificate fee, and (iv) Miscellaneous. (Rule 14).

5. Management which in the opinion of the Inspector of Schools, Tripura have not attained a reasonable level of efficiency or have shown gross irregularities or indifference to educational interest of the pupils or have not complied with any of the specified conditions, may be given a directive to remove the defects as may be specified by the Inspector of Schools within three months of the receipt of the same or even earlier in case of emergency. In case of default the Inspector of Schools may recommend supersession of the managing committee of the school after giving it a full chance to explain why it should not be superseded. In such cases the Management will be informed in writing of the defects by the Inspector of Schools. On being satisfied on the basis of the report of the Inspector of Schools that sufficient grounds exist the Director of Education may appoint an *ad hoc* committee to run the school till such time as he thinks fit or a properly constituted managing committee taken over. (Rule 16)

SECONDARY EDUCATION. — Tripura's educational system has been united with that of Bengal since the days of the Rajas. Her secondary institutions were formerly affiliated to the University of Calcutta; now they are affiliated to the Board of Secondary Education, West Bengal. So it is the Board's rules, which are in force regarding recognition and management of private secondary schools in Tripura.

A commendable feature in Tripura's educational administration is the complete absence of inequality between government and non-government schools in respect of pay and allowances of teachers with same qualifications. In pursuance of the instructions of the Government of India dated November 10, 1959, it was ordered by the Chief Commissioner that the scale of pay of government school teachers will be applicable to teachers of recognised aided higher secondary, high and junior high schools with effect from 1.4.59¹ under the grant-in-aid rules² framed by the Education Directorate and approved by the Central Government. It was also decided that the dearness allowance and other approved allowances admissible to the staff of the non-government schools would be the same as those of their counterparts in government schools. A few important grant-in-aid rules for secondary schools are:

¹ Tripura Gazette (Extraordinary Issue), No. 9A dated January 25, 1960.

² Loc. cit.

1. Higher secondary, high and junior high schools seeking aid shall have to conform to the Departmental rules in all matters of school administration and shall abide by conditions that may be laid down by authorities when sanctioning grants. If any of the conditions upon which a grant has been made is not fulfilled the Director of Education may withdraw the grant or reduce it. (Rule 3)

2. The accounts and records of higher secondary, high and junior high schools receiving grant-in-aid shall be open to inspection by Departmental Officers as well as other officers authorised by the Tripura Administration. The records and accounts of such schools shall be kept in such custody as will be readily accessible to the inspecting officers. (Rule 5)

3. The maximum enrolment in a class or a section of a class shall not normally exceed 40. (Rule 6)

4. Only the post-primary classes (from Class VI upward) are to be taken into account for calculating grant-in-aid. (Rule 10)

5. Of the total number of teachers of a higher secondary, high and junior high school at least half should be trained graduates. A junior high school should have at least two experienced graduates on the staff. (Rule 12)

6. The scale of pay and qualifications of teachers will be the same as those applicable to teachers in government schools. (Rule 13)

7. The rate of tuition fee in all aided schools will be the same as that in government schools. (Rule 14(1))

8. A school may be given recurring grant-in-aid upto 90% of its net approved deficit.

Approved deficit of a school will mean the difference between approved income and approved expenditure. (Rule 15)

9. Managements which in the opinion of the Director of Education have shown gross irregularities or indifference to educational interests of pupils may be given a directive to remove the defects as may be specified by the Director of Education within three months of the receipt of the same. . . . In cases of defaults, the Director of Education may recommend supersession of the managing committee of a school after giving it a full chance to explain why it should not be superseded. In such case the management will be informed in writing of defects by the Board of Secondary Education, West Bengal or the Tripura Administration, as the case may be. The Director will have to appoint an Ad Hoc Committee to run the school till a properly constituted managing committee takes over (Rule 17).

Regarding the general principles of grant-in-aid the following observations may be made:

1. An important objective of the deficit system of grant-in-aid followed in Tripura is to equalise educational opportunity in all parts of the territory.

2. The administration of the system of grant-in-aid is simple and direct and is so conducted as to minimise delays and red-tape.

3. The old doctrine that power follows the purse is abandoned, and the only objective of the controls accompanying grant-in-aid is to see that funds allotted are spent properly for the intended purposes and with prudence.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION. — There are only two colleges in Tripura: one is a government college and the other a non-government one. Both the colleges are affiliated to the University of Calcutta. The government college has its own governing body, and the non-government college is managed in accordance with the University Code.

The rules framed by the Education Directorate for making payment of grant-in-aid to a recognised non-government college are at present under the study of the Government of India.¹ Meanwhile the Directorate has obtained *ex-post facto* sanction of the President of India to the payment of grant-in-aid to the only private college in Tripura on “the basis of the rules prescribed by the Government of West Bengal for payment of grant-in-aid to affiliated college in the State, till further orders.”² It is expected that Tripura will have her own comprehensive Education Code in the near future.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS. — It may be noted that rules of recognition and grant-in-aid have been framed by the Education Directorate also for special schools such as *tols*, *maktabs*, *madhassals*, etc.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION. — The only Polytechnic Institute of Tripura is controlled by the Education Directorate. It was affiliated to the State Council for Engineering and Technical Education, West Bengal in 1960-61. Students of this institute appear at the final L.C.E., L.M.E., L.F.E. examinations of the West Bengal Council. Though entirely under government control, the institute has got a high-level advisory board consisting of both official and non-official members one of whom is an ex-member of the Parliament.

TEACHER EDUCATION AND SOCIAL EDUCATION. — There are five institutions for education and training of teachers: (1) Postgraduate Basic Training College, Agartala; (2) Basic Training College, Kakraban; (3) Basic Training College, Panisagar; (4) Hindi Teachers' Training College, Agartala; and (5) Craft-Teachers' Training Institute, Agartala. All of them are controlled by the Education Directorate. The institutions are not affiliated to any statutory body. The syllabus and programme of training are framed by the Department and the final examination also is taken by them with the help of external exa-

¹ Education Directorate, Tripura. F(7)(1)-E/56/24166 dated 17-10-61.

² Ministry of Education, Government of India. No. F30-10/61-SE.2(c), dated 16-2-62.

miners. There is an all-official advisory committee for the training institutions with the Director of Education as the Chairman.

Social Education also is entirely under government control. Services of some field-workers such as social education organisers, *mukhya sevikas*, social education workers, *gram-sevikas*, etc. have been placed at the disposal of the Block Development Officers for better coordination and expeditious work on rural development. This staff of the Education Department is a part of the extension personnel that a B.D.O. has got at his disposal for integrated development of the block area. The Janata College is the only institute of rural education in Tripura and is also under the administrative control of the Education Directorate.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES. — Tripura's record in respect of non-official participation in educational administration was not at all promising during the old regime. Under the new set-up a beginning has been made, and today there are a few advisory committees for different aspects of education. Some important committees are mentioned below:

1. Tripura Text-Book (Advisory) Committee. All the members are officials. The Committee is reconstituted every three years.
2. Advisory Committee for Teachers' Training Colleges. This is an all-official committee and its life also is three years.
3. Advisory Board for the Polytechnic Institute. There are some non-officials on this Board.
4. Tripura Regional Records Survey Committee (Officials and non-Officials).
5. Advisory Committee for the District Gazetteer. This Committee consists of both officials and non-officials.

SOME TOPICAL ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES

INTRODUCTION. — It is not an overstatement to say that Tripura today under Central Administration stands at the threshold of history. Since 1952-53 she has been taking rapid strides in different fields of public life, and the achievements in the field of education are remarkable, as is evident from the figures quoted earlier. Tripura that was one of the most backward areas in the country just a decade back has carved out a place for herself as one of the advanced areas in the educational map of India. The spadework having already covered a lot of ground in diverse directions, the territory is now steadily heading towards a phase of consolidation in education. It may not be, therefore, out of place just to touch upon and conclude this monograph with a very synoptic discussion on some major topical issues having vital bearing upon the development of education in this territory.

COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION: Control and Management.— That the arrangement of investing the local authorities with the responsibility of taking initiative for the introduction and enforcement of compulsory education in addition to their responsibilities in matters of control and management has not resulted in effective compulsion even in a few selected areas of the country is now a matter of history, and is a part of the general criticism levelled against our local bodies. It is true to say that “the experience of entrusting the administration of primary education to local bodies has proved to be quite unsatisfactory.”¹ It could not be otherwise because “the majority of local bodies have neither zeal nor initiative nor capacity and are not interested either in the introduction or the success of compulsory primary education.”² Such being the case with the country at large, it becomes all the more necessary that in order to introduce and enforce compulsion in Tripura where the tradition of local self-government has yet to take roots, Administration has to come forward and assume an active role in view of the vast numbers involved and the financial implications and also the need to move with the utmost speed. True, decentralisation of power and responsibility would be the ultimate goal; yet taking in to account the special Constitutional obligations (Article 45) and also the unequal capacities and resources of different areas, it may be necessary for the local governmental authorities in Tripura to implement the compulsory scheme under their direct control and supervision in the initial stage—of course with the fullest cooperation of the people.

Reports of Non-attendance and Prosecution. — In the rural areas of Tripura cases of non-attendance can be effectively reported if only the whole work of enforcement is entrusted to paid officials. This may involve heavy financial implications, and hence an alternative method would be to entrust the local headmaster with this work. In the deep interiors, the primary teacher has often to put up with the local headman in absence of alternative accommodation. So unless attendance officers are specially appointed for the purpose, or inspecting officers come to the aid of the teacher, cases of non-attendance may not be reported at all, because the teacher may naturally be unwilling to undertake the unpleasant task of reporting cases of non-attendance and thereby incur the displeasure of the local people. In rural areas, this is perhaps the weakest link in the chain of compulsion.

The authority to decide upon the cases of prosecution should also be conferred upon the departmental officials appointed for the purpose, and not on any other body that may

¹ K. G. Saiyidain, J. P. Naik & Abid Husain. *Compulsory Education in India*. Paris, UNESCO, 1952. p. 140.

² S. N. Mukerji. *Education in India — Today and Tomorrow*. Baroda, Acharya Book Depot, 4th Edition. 1960. p. 85.

be evolved for the purpose. When tradition takes roots and there is public understanding of the great good of compulsory education, then only can a self-governing institution be empowered to carry the scheme through in all its implications. At present public awareness about the utility of compulsory education is poor, and the scheme is likely to be received with resistance rather than welcome. There is nothing strange about it, for almost in every country compulsory education at the initial stage of introduction has been opposed by the very same quarters which it was specially designed to benefit.¹ It is desirable then that both in urban areas and interior villages paid officials of the Education Departments should try the cases of prosecution. Eventually when democracy comes of age and resistance to compulsion no longer exists, the *panchayats* may be authorised to do everything about compulsion. And that is what should be the ultimate goal. It is further desirable that the three important successive stages of compulsion, namely, (a) grant of exemption, (b) passing of attendance orders, and (c) prosecution should be entrusted to one authority. It is rather an advantage for Tripura that she does not suffer from any dead weight of tradition and can begin on a clean slate with a cadre of paid officials.

Administration and Supervision. — One of the rocks on which the old schemes of compulsion had been wrecked is loose and ineffectual administration. The way primary education had been administered in the past in most parts of the country leads one to infer that it was destined to fail. If public funds were deplorably low, no less depressing was the lack of identification and the output of drive and dash on the part of our local bodies. It augurs well for Tripura that out of a total of 1,072 primary/Basic schools, only 44 are managed by private bodies. It may not be feasible to introduce compulsory education all over the territory at one time nor can it be enforced in all the five primary classes simultaneously. In view of this small beginning it may be possible to employ paid officials as attendance officers, provide adequate training for them and entrust to them the task of looking into the details of compulsion. In this connection, the recommendations of the Regional Conference on Compulsory Education in South Asian and Pacific countries held in Bombay (1952) make an interesting and profitable reading.² Apart from professional training, attendance officers should have training in the detailed implications of the compulsory scheme.

Another sure way of evolving a sound administrative machinery for compulsory education — that was originally tried in the old Baroda State with good results — is to make a periodical review of the scheme in action along these lines:

¹ Lester Smith. *Compulsory Education in England*. UNESCO. p. 52.

² UNESCO. *Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific*. p. 121.

1. Whether the lists of school-going children are complete and up-to-date; if not, to make them so.
2. To find out all the possible reasons for non-attendance.
3. The grounds on which exemption is generally sought for and granted.
4. The strength of various classes and a detailed analysis of the reasons for the withdrawal of pupils before they have gone through all the classes.
5. How far literacy has increased among the communities in the village as a result of compulsion.
6. The general manner in which the procedure of compulsion works.
7. The extent to which parents appreciate the system and whether there has been a change for the better in this respect.

Wastage and Stagnation.—The method of calculating wastage has undergone some changes in recent years. Previously the term used to signify all types of wastage in an educational process. But nowadays it is used in some limited sense to mean only those cases 'where a child leaves school without even acquiring a fairly stable literacy—the humblest goal of primary education.'¹ It is now believed that a child who leaves school after reaching the fourth grade definitely carries back a stamp of literacy and cannot be considered as total wastage. We have five classes in a primary school in Tripura. In order to calculate wastage we have to count only those children, who leave school even before attending it for at least three years from Class I. No such survey has yet been made in Tripura. But when the percentage of literacy is 23.7 in the country at large, it is more or less the same in Tripura also, viz., 22.2.² It may be said that the most important cause of wastage is economic. There are other causes of wastage too—for example, repeated failures, early marriages, truancy, shifting habitations, etc. Besides, most of the primary schools in the hilly interior are single or two-teacher schools where the learning situations have to be made sufficiently attractive.

Regarding stagnation it is not possible to cite figures, because no such work has yet been done in Tripura. It may be said from general experience that stagnation is the worst in Class I. It is a safe guess that in the wake of compulsion stagnation will increase in some parts of Tripura, whereas it will decrease in some other parts. In those areas where educational endeavour has already made some headway and the congenial climate for further expansion has been made, compulsion will make attendance more regular and

¹ Saiyidain, et.al., *op.cit.*, p. 55.

² India, 1962. p. 78.

reduce stagnation. But in the comparatively backward areas, school classes at the initial stage are likely to be overcrowded, school houses unsatisfactory, teachers untrained, classes of heterogeneous groups—all of which combine to increase stagnation. To counteract this, only the very best and experienced of supervisors, attendance officers and teachers should be sent to the comparatively tough areas to tackle the problems with some measure of success. Whatever may be done, stagnation will occur at the initial stage of compulsion. But that must not deter us.

Hostile Topography. — A glance at the map of Tripura will show that Nature has been a very exacting mistress to this territory. There are six principal hill ranges stretching across the land from north to south that practically cut off the valleys from one another. The nearest railway line that virtually circumscribes the territory on south, west and north runs through foreign territory, and so Tripura has no internal railway line even today. Again it is difficult to build roads across rough terrain and deep forests, and thus the internal road system too, though improving at a great speed, has yet to come upto the mark. Out of a total of 26,34,300 acres, forests cover an area of 16,63,000 acres, that is, two-thirds of the area of the territory. There are 3,460 villages in Tripura. Out of these 2,800 villages have a population of less than 100. These villages are scattered—separated by terrain and hill streams and other natural barriers with the result that it is scarcely possible for one school to serve more than one village. There are other aspects of the problem too. Of about 1,000 primary schools, roll strength in 200 schools is below 30; in another 200 schools it is between 50-75, and in 100 schools between 75-100¹. It can be easily guessed how serious is the challenge to educational administration in such far-flung areas. Thus unless the communication system is properly built up, administration of compulsory education runs the risk of being loose and slow at the initial stage. This may be partially counteracted by streamlining the machinery passing attendance orders and dealing with the cases of prosecution. This may be done by conferring the power on responsible officials specially trained to act not as police officers bent on bringing offenders to book but to function as guides and counsellors with personal knowledge and understanding of individual cases.

Single-Teacher Schools. — Allied with the factors of geography is the problem of single-teacher schools. Their number is already large; expansion of education will make it larger, for it is not possible to create large consolidated schools in Tripura in view of her transport position. The academic and administrative problems of these schools are numerous. Some of the ways of tackling the problem are:

¹ Figures have been collected in the Statistical Section, Education Department, Tripura Territorial Council, Agartala.

1. To survey the interior areas from time to time and keep educational facilities uptodate and adequate.
2. To give due weightage to the needs of the locality and adjust the curriculum accordingly.
3. To adjust holidays and vacations in accordance with the needs of different economic units in different regions.
4. To make a study of the different kinds of child labour current in the locality with a view to formulating plans by which child labour may be reduced to the minimum, and secondly school hours may be so adjusted as to enable children to attend schools without any hindrance to their work at home.
5. Special types of literature may be produced in the light of needs of single-teacher schools in different zones.
6. To discover new techniques for the training of teachers of single-teacher schools.
7. To attempt to co-ordinate inter-departmental activities on rural development.¹

TRIBAL EDUCATION AND SHIFTING CULTIVATORS.— Tribal education is a matter of fundamental controversy. For assimilation into the broad masses of Indian humanity the tribal people should be educated according to our standard; but to avoid outright detribalisation their own cultural and social traits and institutions should be preserved and promoted. So, in dealing with tribal education one has to steer a middle path between the two extremes—complete non-intervention and outright detribalisation. This requires careful planning and supervision, for the need here is not literacy alone but something more, and that is to further enliven and rationalise the tribal life with the light of modern education at its virtuous best. Administrative authorities in Tripura are alive to these problems and some measures have already been taken in this respect—as for instance, giving incentives to teachers who learn the tribal language. There is further scope for work in this field in regard to syllabus, text-books (presently being prepared by the Education Directorate), teaching appliances, school furniture and physical get-up and adjustment of school session etc. We are told that while planning mass education for the tribal people the correct basis should be laid at the primary stage, otherwise it is not possible to arrest the process of detribalisation. Once tribal education is overtaken by 'sophisticated urban approach', tribal life is thrown out of gear leading 'to a breakdown of respect for traditional authority'. The warning is that this results in the collapse of tribal allegiance which brings in its trail 'bewilderment, followed by disillusion, inevitably followed by social degeneration and crime'.²

¹ J. P. Naik. *Research and Experiment in Rural Education*. p. 42.

² Verrier Elwin. *A Philosophy For NEFA*. p. 199.

The education of the shifting cultivators raises a problem of real administrative difficulty. The number of shifting families in Tripura is roughly 25,000 which account for a population of more than 100,000¹. In the case of tribes whose movements are uncertain, the problem can be partly met by requiring the children to attend schools nearest to their camps. This practice is followed in some countries of Asia and the west.² The other way is to set up colonies, where the shifting cultivators can settle permanently and take to settled cultivation. This scheme is now being vigorously pushed through by the local authorities and by 1960-61 some 13,250 families had been settled in such colonies. The Education Department is also creating schools in the colonies to meet the needs of education. It will take some time before all the shifting families are permanently settled in colonies, and so it may be necessary to provide some sort of mobile education either in the form of itinerant schools or travelling teachers.

CONCLUSION

We have reached the end of our account. Tripura, almost a *terra incognita* of the Indian Union, that was a land of romance and adventure to an outsider even in the recent past is fast getting into strides to become a fact in the Indian Republic. But the journey's end is still not within easy reach. Tripura is preponderantly rural; ninety-three per cent of the population live in rural areas and most of them are peasants and landless labourers. About 40 per cent of the people are tribals. The land is virtually cut off from the Indian mainland except by air. The 125-long all-weather access road—the only life-line leading Assam border—runs through a number of major hill ranges and some unpredictable rivers and thus traffic hold-ups are not infrequent during heavy rains when landslides occur or the rivers are in spate. Daily articles of consumption have to be transported by air which leads to a high cost of living. The territory has no industry nor any resources to build one except minor cottage industries. Then there is hazardous terrain and dense forests with an internal road system that still leaves much to be desired. These physical factors have their inevitable repercussions upon the nature and scope of educational administration in this territory. If money is no problem because of federal munificence, problems lie elsewhere in regard to personnel who have to be recruited mostly from outside, and organisation and co-ordination. Secondly, it will take some time before voluntary efforts can grow in the field of education to share the burden of administration with the government. Today the territory has eleven community development block units, if the C.D. programme can succeed in creating a stir in our sleeping villages and usher in an era of welfare for all,

¹ Tripura Administration. *Tribal Welfare in Tripura*. p. 1.

² UNESCO and IBE. *Compulsory Education and Its Prolongation*. p. 23.

then the need of government control will become less and real control may be handed over to the rural self-governing bodies. That is the ideal to which efforts have been canalised in all democratic countries. Much depends upon the attitude of the society toward education and its utility. Formerly educational administration meant orders, rules, reports and red-tape; today it signifies research, coordination, guidance and active assistance to field workers. During the last few decades, interest in education and its profound social significance have grown steadily in different parts of the world. These currents are having a free flow in our country too. Let us make sure this knowledge will leave its lasting stamp and the day will arrive at a not too distant future when opportunities will be created "to enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their training."¹

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7. Shri S. Sengupta, Ex-Adviser on Education, Government of Tripura.
8. Shri D. C. Datta, Ex-Private Secretary to the last Maharaja of Tripura.

¹ Graham Balfour. As quoted in the *Content of Education*. London, University of London Press, 1945.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX

1. *Educational Statistics of India, 1958-59*
 2. *Universities in India, 1959-60*
 3. *Educational Statistics of States (Institutions) 1960-61*
 4. *Educational Statistics of States (Student Enrolment) 1960-61*
 5. *Literacy in India (1961 Census)*
 6. *Expenditure on Education, States and India, 1958-59*
 7. *Abbreviations*
 8. *Glossary*
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APPENDIX ONE
EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF INDIA, 1958-59

Item	No of Institutions	Students Enrolled
Universities	40	64 150
Boards of Education	13	2,954
Research Institutions	42	—
Colleges for General Education		
Degree Standard	765	
Intermediate Standard	115	
TOTAL	878	6 47 211
Colleges for Professional and Technical Education		
Agriculture	29	10 871
Applied Arts and Architecture	2	—
Commerce	35	66 582
Engineering	54	31 820
Forestry	5	559
Law	52	21 055
Medicine	110	52 950
Physical Education	15	745
Teachers' Training		
Basic	54	1 556
Non-Basic	180	19 886
Technology	9	3 375
Veterinary Science	17	5 157
Others	2	1 313
TOTAL	542	2 01 827
Colleges for Special Education		
Music Dancing and other Fine Arts	15	6 113
Oriental Studies	102	9 421
Sociology	7	1 338
Others	11	1 579
TOTAL	168	21 251
Schools for General Education		
Post-Basic	50	2 506
Higher Secondary	5 171	16,18,419
High	11 125	45 50 314
Middle		
Basic	8 659	22 66 560
Non-Basic	30 933	59 02,944
Primary		
Basic	57 069	51,19,764
Non-Basic	2 24 495	1,89,22 417
Pre-primary	1,190	1,37,698
TOTAL	3 56,677	3,86,94,448

Item	No. of Institutions	Students Enrolled
Schools for Vocational and Technical Education		
Agriculture		7,411
Arts and Crafts		15,696
Commerce		98,754
Engineering		46,549
Forestry		237
Industry		45,403
Medicine		10,688
Physical Education		3,639
Teachers' Training		
Basic		71,550
Non-Basic	295	17,964
Technology	137	19,814
Veterinary Science	10	1,093
Others	19	3,495
TOTAL	3,563	3,42,293
Schools for Special Education		
Music, Dancing and other Fine Arts	209	18,087
Oriental Studies	3,374	1,31,739
For the Handicapped	128	4,525
For Social Workers	51	12,57,679
Social (Adult) Education	17,086	6,340
Reformatory	44	8,203
Others	313	11,723
TOTAL	51,705	14,38,296
GRAND TOTAL	4,13,628	4,14,32,752

APPENDIX TWO
UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA, 1959-60*

Sr. No.	Name and Year of Establishment	Character	No. of colleges	No. of students	Expenditure (in crores of Rs.)
1.	Agra University, Agra (1927)	Affiliating and Teaching	88	40,714	2.62
2.	Aligarh University, Aligarh (1921)	Residential and Teaching	1	4,506	0.95
3.	Allahabad University, Allahabad (1887)	Residential and Teaching	4	7,912	0.61
4.	Andhra University, Waltair (1926)	Affiliating and Teaching	46	27,915	2.34
5.	Annamalai University, Annamalaiagar (1929)	Residential and Teaching	—	3,098	0.48
6.	Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi (1916)	Residential and Teaching	19	8,512	2.21
7.	Baroda University, Baroda (1949)	Residential and Teaching	14	7,868	0.81
8.	Bhagalpur University, Bhagalpur (1960)	Affiliating and Teaching	—	—	—
9.	Bihar University, Muzaffarpur (1952)	Affiliating and Teaching	101	77,388	3.95
10.	Bombay University, Bombay (1857)	Federal and Teaching	34	47,800	2.90
11.	Burdwan University, Burdwan (1960)	Affiliating and Teaching	—	—	—
12.	Calcutta University, Calcutta (1857)	Affiliating and Teaching	150	1,36,815	6.35
13.	Delhi University, Delhi (1922)	Affiliating and Teaching	20	16,763	2.22
14.	Gauhati University, Gauhati (1943)	Affiliating and Teaching	34	26,474	1.65
15.	Gorakhpur University, Gorakhpur (1957)	Affiliating and Teaching	17	8,196	0.27
16.	Gujarat University, Ahmedabad (1949)	Affiliating and Teaching	46	31,128	1.78
17.	Indra Kala Sanget Vishwavidyalaya, Khairagarh (1958)	Affiliating and Teaching	22	139	0.02
18.	Jabalpur University, Jabalpur (1955)	Affiliating and Teaching	20	9,344	0.61
19.	Jadavpur University, Jadavpur (1912)	Residential and Teaching	—	1,572	0.47
20.	Jammu & Kashmir University, Srinagar (1960)	Affiliating and Teaching	26	8,774	0.40
21.	Kalyani University, Kalyani (West Bengal) (1960)	Residential and Teaching	2	—	—
22.	Kaneshwara Singh Darbhanga Sanskrit University, Darbhanga (1961)	Residential and Teaching	2	—	—
23.	Karnatak University, Dharwar (1949)	Affiliating and Teaching	28	12,775	1.32

24	Kerala University, Trivandrum (1937)	75	38,083	300
25	Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra (1936)	—	29	144
26	Lucknow University, Lucknow (1921)	16	13,229	090
27	Madras University, Madras (1857)	105	50,596	5095
28	Marathwada University, Aurangabad (1938)	12	3,684	041
29	Mysore University, Mysore (1916)	53	32,908	227
30	Nagpur University, Nagpur (1923)	36	21,826	167
31	Osmama University, Hyderabad (1918)	39	18,985	216
32	Panjab University, Chandigarh (1947)	137	66,801	588
33	Patna University, Patna (1917)	10	10,664	120
34	Poona University, Poona (1919)	35	25,042	028
35	Rajasthan University Jaipur (1947)	14	21,526	204
36	Ranchi University, Ranchi (1960)	—	—	—
37	Roorkee University, Roorkee (1949)	—	1,476	080
38	Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth, Vallabh Nagar (1955)	—	2,232	038
39	Saugar University, Saugar (1946)	5	13,076	135
40	S N D T Women's University, Bombay (1951)	40	2,949	017
41	Sri Venkateswara University, Tirumala (1954)	8	8,359	090
42	Utkal University, Cuttack (1947)	20	11,720	109
43	U P Agricultural University, Pantnagar, Nainital Dist (1960)	31	—	—
44	Varanasi Sanskrit Vishwavidyalaya, Varanasi (1958)	2	490	013
45	Vikram University, Ujjain (1957)	—	12,718	150
46	Vishva-Bharati University, Santiniketan (1951)	41	547	038
		6		

*Provisional

APPENDIX

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF

Item	Andhra P.	Assam	Bihar*	Guj.	J & K*	Kerala
Universities	3	1	2	3	1	1
Boards of Education	1	1	1	1	-	1
Research Institutions	-	-	4	7	-	1
<i>Colleges for General Education</i>						
Degree Std.	59	41	59	46	8	46
Intermediate Std.	4	-	14	1	4	46
<i>Colleges for Prof. & Tech. Edn.</i>						
Agriculture	2	1	2	2	-	1
Applied Arts & Arch.	1	-	-	-	-	-
Commerce	1	1	2	8	1	18
Engineering	5	2	5	5	-	6
Forestry	-	-	-	-	-	-
Law	2	-	3	5	-	2
Medicine	11	2	7	9	-	2
Physical Edn.	1	-	2	1	-	2
Teacher Tr:						
Basic	1	1	3	2	-	1
Non-Basic	7	3	2	6	2	19
Technology	-	1	1	-	-	-
Veterinary	2	1	-	-	-	1
Others	-	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Colleges for Special Edn.</i>						
Music, Dance, etc.	-	-	5	2	-	-
Oriental Studies	22	1	-	1	10	7
Sociology	-	-	1	1	-	2
Others	2	-	6	2	-	-
<i>Schools for General Edn</i>						
Post-Basic	2	-	22	-	-	3
Higher Sec.	140	45	124	-	8	-
High	1,082	709	1,143	1,099	153	885
Middle:						
Basic	338	709	729	9181	-	83
Non-Basic	645	1,348	3,139	3299	292	1,834
Primary:						
Basic	2,532	2,521	2,259	1724	-	417
Non-Basic	32,003	14,358	29,782	10,308	2,574	6,255
Pre-Primary	47	46	10	358	-	61
<i>Schools for Voc. & Tech. Edn</i>						
Agriculture	-	1	17	10	-	-
Arts & Crafts	2	37	21	-	-	2
Commerce	156	23	19	69	-	-
Engineering	16	1	14	1	-	13
Forestry	-	1	-	2	-	1
Industry	38	-	19	-	-	-
Medicine	-	-	-	22	-	7
Physical Edn.	1	-	2	3	-	2
Teacher Tr.						
Basic	83	21	62	64	8	78
Non-Basic	44	15	25	7	-	-
Technology	12	-	10	134	-	-
Veterinary Sc.	2	-	1	3	-	2
Others	2	-	-	12	-	-
<i>Schools for Special Edn.</i>						
Music, Dance, etc.	15	24	1	18	-	2
Oriental Studies	7	109	489	25	-	-
For Handicapped	9	2	6	17	1	7
For Social Workers	9	1	6	2	-	-
Social Edn.	1,358	677	6,617	7,211	-	134
Reformatory	-	-	1	5	-	1
Others	9	127	1	1	-	49
Total	-	-	43,249 44,632	26,476 27,677	2875 3,062	8,959

* Figures for 1958-59.

THREE

STATES • (INSTITUTIONS) 1960-61

M P.*	Madras**	Maha- rashtra	Mysore	Orissa*	Punjab*	Rajasthan	U. P.	W. Benl
4	2	5	2	1	2	1	9	3
2	1	2		1		2	3	1
1	-	15	3				8	4
59	58	81	42	11	76	37	111	112
17			10	8	5	19	920	5
	1	5	2	1	1	2	9	1
1		2	4				3	
		11	4		2	3		2
2	6	7	9	1	3	2	2	4
4	1						2	-
	2	8	6	1	1			1
3	4	15	5	2	5	9	5	14
9	2	4	4		1	1	16	1
1								
		3	22	7	8		1	5
3	16	13	30	1	9	50	20	12
6	1	2	1		1		13	4
	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1
2	1				1			-
								.
18	2	1		2		1	7	9
6	15	3	7	4	1	15	8	1
	2	1				1	1	1
1	2	6					4	1
			1					
		91		1	141	304		612
277	1 005	2 101	136	341	1 153	233	1 333	1,235
286	P	9	618	11	12		14	—
301	516	2 730	1 059	23	59	55		133
1,595	1,142	270	1 869	923	1 299	1 361	3,786	2,069
2,228	3,046	1 515	2 068	360	708	2,041	—	1,297
21 144	26 221	30 351	19 034	17 816	11 573	12,507	33,321	25,912
120	27	527	201		3	15	37	62
21		35	10	1		1	7	2
17	17	159		17	1	2		156
1	397	240	13	2				73
10	20	39		5	6	5	15	21
1		2						—
39	54	126		21	73		72	
5		78	9		7		2	10
2	1	17	17	1			3	—
55	71	128	18		22	54	2	22
3	25	123	6	58		—	94	39
5		39	18	5	9	8	193	—
		4			2		—	1
2		1	27				—	—
5	1	71	28	16	1	5	7	31
121	9	39	143	148	4		1	975
4	13	31	3		7	2	18	9
1	3	2	5	11	1			5
1,113	1,248	23,655	5,001	2,798	837	4,936	529	4,241
2	20	13	4	—	2	—	1	2
7	—	—	—	—	—	1	609	58
29,802								
30,507	32,859	62,279	33,626	22,597	16,025		—	33,050

**Figures for 1959-60.

APPENDIX

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF

Item	Andhra P.	Assam	Bihar*	Guj.	J & K*	Kerala
<i>General Edn. (University Standard)</i>	42,386	23,885	64,770	31,412	6,757	41,948
<i>Colleges for Prof. & Tech. Edn.</i>						
Agriculture	693	285	537	782	—	80
Applied Arts & Arch.	225	—	—	—	—	—
Commerce	339	229	6,284	5,452	—	—
Engineering	2,532	508	2,717	5,605	127	855
Forestry	—	—	—	—	—	—
Law	1,497	—	1,077	1,966	—	393
Medicine	3,814	560	1,756	2,411	—	240
Physical Edn.	57	—	112	19	—	12
Teacher Tr.						
Basic	66	25	453	66	—	40
Non-Basic	975	96	199	779	222	2,000
Technology	—	75	—	—	—	—
Veterinary	592	289	634	—	—	80
Others	—	27	112	—	—	—
<i>Colleges for Special Edn.</i>						
Music, Dance, etc.	505	—	19	655	—	—
Oriental Studies	657	18	2,462	70	225	512
Sociology	—	—	—	76	—	25
Others	174	—	5	508	—	—
<i>Schools for Gen. Edn.</i>						
Post-Basic	128	—	—	—	—	—
High Sec.	1,26,790	30,485	—	—	—	3,30,893
High	4,23,994	2,14,248	3,52,393	3,64,853	16,736	—
Middle:			3,09,826			8,82,803
Basic	82,943	1,65,87	—	8,05,314	58,984	—
Non-Basic	1,29,992	1,11,405	—	7,30,783	—	—
Primary:			25,72,455			20,56,605
Basic	2,91,193	2,22,977	—	1,37,216	1,66,904	—
Non-Basic	25,26,301	8,69,575	—	5,78,800	—	—
Pre-primary	3,080	2,391	845	25,947	10,788	3,500
<i>Schools for Voc & Tech. Edn.</i>						
Agriculture	—	94	1,475	603	—	—
Arts & Crafts	47	2,965	437	—	—	75
Commerce	6,986	2,926	2,203	10,417	—	—
Engineering	5,687	58	3,020	496	—	780
Forestry	—	22	—	77	—	80
Industry	4,278	—	2,226	—	100	—
Medicine	—	—	—	1,069	—	185
Physical Edn	—	—	179	355	—	22
Teacher Tr.						
Basic	10,649	1,609	6,226	8,019	359	3,800
Non-Basic	3,472	884	821	165	—	—
Technology	—	—	2,224	10,277	—	—
Veterinary Sc.	335	—	153	120	—	24
Others	—	—	—	1,485	—	—
<i>Schools for Special Edn.</i>						
Music, Dancing, etc.	315	1,333	76	1,306	61	120
Oriental Studies	7,595	3,250	20,067	977	212	—
For the Handicapped	416	81	238	723	15	160
For Social Workers	1,415	39	609	39	—	—
Social (Adult) Edn.	30,064	24,845	2,34,511	1,45,953	—	—
Reformatory	—	160	75	492	—	35
Others	604	3,744	86	32	—	14,200
Total	—	—	35,91,282	28,70,349	2,61,490	—

*Figures for 1958-59.

FOUR

STATES (ENROLMENT)* 1960-61

M P *	Madras**	Maha rashtra	Mysore	Orissa*	Punjab*	Rajasthan	U P	W Beng
22 684	36 545	7 462	31 324	7 657	51,343	30 031	1 31 797	1,29,608
1,013	600	1 666	669	171	784	695	1,934	121
5 033	2 346	10 842	3 174	101	205	1,082	936	1,813
1 954	1 381	4,392	4 768	272	1 106	1,479	1,734	3,321
	376					—	288	
1,017	1,186	1,312	1 254	203	750		3,821	630
1 888	3,116	4 850	2 520	128	1 394	1,502	3 855	4,243
12	183	76	23		49	66	82	47
292		114	1 861	359	859	7 081	85	331
1 101	1 029	1 549	3 048	351	2 775		3 492	1 294
	276	656	166		193		840	411
570	492	232	217	115	362	264	674	215
11					82	—	—	—
1 761	286	507		82		53	964	2,689
266	1 346	197	1 748	357	136	1 832		240
		180				62		191
287		1 332		57				182
								6 75,582
3 777		71 979	75,719			1 02,759	6 75,582	2,94,715
		16 705	1,35,537	50 618	1 37 671	96 172		3 82,524
2 46 34	49 527	3 73 057	2 81 812	59 175	3,59 453	12 512		9,654
		39 680	8 85 461			3 03 863	4 27 792	1 82,791
17 76 208	5 26 981	1 60 594	2 08 240	8 9 394	13 0 57	1,98 163	30 02 431	1,36,980
	27 51 289	31 44 418	10 67 676			6 83 474	7 540	24 13,083
8 080		33 931	13 563	6 734	682	1 323		4 042
591	1 846	2 485	829	28		107	913	160
442	1 846	6 550		199	110	91		10,146
31	28 957	18 751	18 155	49	206			17,217
1 666	5 985	7 934	391	176	2 816	340	5 303	10,873
119		93					—	
1 225	5 317	5 181		1 01	5 913	487	6,289	
222		1 643	392		928		149	1 108
238	312	5	1 130	40			366	
6,156	6 946	6 683	2 155		1 579	2 455	145	1 360
191	3 251	5 222	121	2 984	76		6 005	1 024
101		7 934	6 702	621	1 215	1 145		421
		271			187	76		
269		177	2 386				19 026	527
1,606	86	2,141	2 325	955	172	436	675	2,857
5,044	512	2 180	8 145	3 519	275	8 569	—	18,970
155	1 605	1 720	239	181	229	113	639	649
45	152	125	173	1 138	49		—	213
32 368	34 612	5 92 180	80,788	89 093	23 405	70,748	13 340	2 11 208
128	3 331	2,040	516		289			139
1,109		—		—		5 107	—	5,743
21,93,435	34,320,77	56 65,672	28,93,689	11 25 580	19 68,923	12,84 299	47 60,381	30,29,165

**Figures for 1959-60.

APPENDIX FIVE
LITERACY IN INDIA
 (1961 CENSUS)

State/Union Territory	Literates			Percentage of Literacy		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Female
INDIA	10,32,15,780	7,62,50,052	2,69,65,728	23.7	33.9	12.8
<i>States</i>						
Andhra Pradesh	74,88,618	53,93,357	20,95,261	20.8	29.7	11.8
Assam	30,54,576	22,43,938	8 10,638	25.8	35.5	14.6
Bihar	81,70,426	69,05,649	15,64,777	18.2	29.6	6.8
Gujarat	62,46,778	43,41,949	19,04,829	30.3	40.8	19.1
Jammu & Kashmir	3,81,753	3,11,009	70,744	10.7	16.3	4.2
Kerala	78,00,284	45,21,648	32,78,636	46.2	54.2	38.4
Madhya Pradesh	51,72,286	44,24,881	10,47,405	16.9	26.7	6.6
Madras	1,01,68,095	72,69,803	28,98,292	30.2	43.0	17.3
Maharashtra	1,17,31,272	85,44,228	31,87,044	29.7	41.8	16.7
Mysore	59,55,995	43,24,043	16,31,952	25.3	36.0	14.2
Orissa	37,79,565	30,31,196	7,58,369	21.5	34.4	8.6
Punjab	48 14,911	35,24,241	12,90,670	23.7	32.1	13.7
Rajasthan	29,52,533	24,08,821	5,43,712	14.7	22.8	5.7
Uttar Pradesh	1 28,91,099	1,03,38 655	25,52,444	17.5	26.7	7.3
West Bengal	1 01,80,682	74,35,309	27,45,373	29.1	40.0	16.8
<i>Union Territories</i>						
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	21,314	16,631	1,683	33.6	42.4	19.4
Delhi	13,49,414	8,71,813	4,77,601	51.0	58.9	41.1
Himachal Pradesh	1 97,533	1,58,480	39,053	14.6	22.6	6.0
Laccadive, Minicoy & Amindivi Islands	5,613	4,283	1,330	23.3	35.9	10.9
Tripura	2,53,033	1,90,118	62,915	22.2	32.2	11.4

Figures are provisional and relate to the territory and population covered by the census on March 1, 1961

	Punjab	Rajasthan	U. P.	W. Bengal	India
A. Exp. by Sources					
Govt. Funds					
Central State	1,36,59,835	46,47,449	3,24,48,618	2,32,32,244	19,95,86,722
District Board Funds	7,72,91,556	6,64,50,678	15,63,35,302	15,64,97,982	1,57,59,72,457
Municipal Board Funds	4,80,464	5,53,578	1,66,31,200	41,68,810	8,53,78,915
Fees	4,08,766	1,43,319	91,89,006	45,71,908	7,96,54,729
Emoluments, etc.	3,68,00,827	66,19,012	7,88,56,502	7,73,71,796	48,51,66,593
Other Sources	90,51,536	35,78,386	48,48,916	67,18,609	7,85,74,442
B. By Type of Inv.	60,52,585	18,39,460	3,64,59,773	1,73,16,666	15,77,78,280
Direct Exp. on:					
Universities	92,57,440	15,04,830	4,06,21,281	1,15,29,410	11,62,60,845
Boards of Sec. & Inter.	—	17,64,936	61,16,031	21,40,462	2,04,71,614
Research Ins.	—	—	86,24,498	20,46,416	2,53,13,396
Arts & Sc. Colleges	1,16,82,317	85,77,439	1,54,73,659	2,10,43,242	15,82,08,685
Prof. & Tech. Colleges	73,03,423	38,65,051	78,10,271	1,57,37,702	11,19,53,498
Colleges for Sp. Edn.	18,853	5,19,997	6,90,762	8,05,685	70,22,513
Post-Basic Schools	—	80,58,108	—	—	9,34,934
Higher Sec. Schools	66,24,119	—	8,13,19,440	2,93,30,762	17,03,61,759
High Schools	3,10,23,698	90,14,925	—	2,94,51,816	35,38,26,216
Middle School	—	—	—	—	—
Basic	7,49,764	8,82,132	—	6,12,463	8,05,13,109
Non-Basic	1,29,31,100	1,21,59,940	2,41,12,806	1,29,13,908	23,78,00,739
• Primary Schools					
Basic	22,56,999	38,17,933	—	38,64,500	12,50,09,762
Non-Basic	2,77,38,680	1,66,28,778	6,73,86,713	5,98,77,760	51,06,62,698
Pre Primary S.	14,610	84,691	5,31,429	3,25,005	45,13,518
Voc. & Tech. S.	49,09,877	24,44,098	81,13,135	85,66,497	8,21,47,144
Sp. Edn. Schools	8,31,364	11,65,516	48,92,377	49,38,161	2,80,31,079
TOTAL (Direct)	11,53,12,114	7,05,18,404	26,56,92,402	20,25,43,789	2,03,30,31,509
Indirect Ex. on:					
Direction & Inspection	37,61,984	27,53,955	84,30,314	28,21,337	5,68,48,886
Buildings	1,67,08,337	2,43,046	2,92,96,523	4,74,11,141	25,58,95,763
Scholarships	62,16,313	96,048	1,69,26,466	1,88,46,722	12,87,72,782
Hostels	10,49,050	12,220	44,51,637	32,60,199	4,12,22,756
Misc. Items	6,84,441	22,08,209	99,71,975	1,49,94,827	11,63,40,442
TOTAL (Indirect)	2,84,20,125	1,33,13,178	6,90,76,915	8,73,34,226	62,90,80,629
GRAND TOTAL	14,37,62,569	8,38,31,832	33,47,69,317	28,98,78,015	2,66,21,12,138
Average Annual Cost per pupil in:					
Arts & Sc. College	215.4	239.0	280.2	177.1	244.4
High/Higher Sec. Sch.	59.0	112.6	101.8	93.4	85.1
Middle Sch.	47.4	51.4	49.4	73.5	39.0
Primary Sch.	31.9	32.0	19.1	25.9	26.1
Per capita of Population	7.4	4.3	4.7	8.7	6.4

APPENDIX SEVEN

ABBREVIATIONS

A.C.C.	Auxiliary Cadet Corps
A.D.E.I.	Assistant Deputy Educational Officer*
A.I.C.T.E.	All-India Council for Technical Education
A.M.I.	Association Montessori Internationale
C.A.B.E.	Central Advisory Board of Education
D.A.V.	Dayananda Anglo-Vedic
D.E.	Director of Education
D.E.P.S.E.	Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education
D.P.I.	Director of Public Instruction
D.E.O.	District Education Officer
D.S.E.O.	District Social Education Officer
G.R.	Government Resolution
G.B.T.C.	Graduates' Basic Training College
H.S.S.E.	Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination
H.S.C.	High School Certificate
I.C.C.W.	Indian Council of Child Welfare
I.E.S.	Indian Educational Service
N.C.C.	National Cadet Corps
N.B.S.S.	Nutan Bal Shikshan Sangh
P.E.S.	Provincial Education Service
P.W.D.	Public Works Department
S.S.C.E.	Secondary School Certificate Examination
S.S.L.C.	Secondary School Leaving Certificate
S.G.	Selection Grade
S.T.C.	Secondary Teachers' Certificate
S.E.O.	Social Education Organiser
T.S.L.C.E.	Training School Leaving Certificate
U.G.C.	University Grants Commission

APPENDIX EIGHT

GLOSSARY

academic year: For the sake of uniformity, the academic year in the various tables of this book is taken to coincide with the financial year, i.e., to extend from 1st April to 31st March of each year.

ad hoc committee: A high-power committee, appointed specially for a particular purpose.

adivasis: Aboriginal people.

affiliating university: This is a university, which affiliates to itself or associates with itself in *quasi* subordinate capacity such colleges as make provision for instruction of students according to bye-laws or regulations laid down by the university. Such a university is diffused over a large area and keeps within its fold those scattered colleges, which are not big enough to constitute university centres.

aid, educational: Financial assistance through grants of money for educational purposes.

aid, equalization: Money granted by a country or the State to help equalization of educational opportunities.

aid, national or federal: Financial assistance, given by the federal or national government to State or local systems and educational institutions through grants, appropriations and allotments for carrying out their educational programmes.

antaram zilla parishad: A statutory local body at the district level in the Uttar Pradesh.

autonomy: The right of self-government or the right to take decisions independently.

autonomous bodies: Such bodies, as have freedom to act without external control. Such a right is granted by constitutional or legislative provisions of the State.

balamandira or balawadi: A pre-primary school.

bhajana mandala: A group (*maydala*) of singers, singing *bhajans* or devotional songs.

bharata natyam: Typical dance of South India.

bhudana: A movement started by Vinoba Bhave for redistributing the ownership of *bhu* or land.

beat: A unit of 60-70 villages for the administration of primary education.

bhagini mandala: Women's association.

block: A unit of 100 villages, under the Community Development Project Administration.

capital outlay: It includes all permanent additions to existing land, buildings and equipment.

centralized administration: An administrative system, in which authority for direction, control and management is located at one point.

charter: A written instrument granting certain powers or specific duties to an individual or a group by the sovereign authority of a nation.

constituent college: It is a college, which is an integral part of the university to which it belongs.

continuation school: A public part-time school in which young workers may continue their education even though they are employed.

crore: Ten millions.

decentralisation: The practice of operation of schools in such a way that there is scope for the local units to adopt educational programmes to suit local needs.

delegation of authority: The right to transfer some power or authority of a legislative body or a responsible officer to a person, institution or capable body.

educational equalization: An equal distribution of the burden, or cost of supporting public education among the subordinate units within a central government unit, in terms of the principles of tax-paying ability.

endowment: It is a fund, which has to be maintained, only the income from which can be used.

executive activity: It includes all the acts or processes required to make policies and procedures effective.

expenditure: In calculating the expenditure from Government, District or Municipal Board funds, all payments or contributions from fees and other sources, which are credited to such funds, are deducted.

expenditure, current: A liability that is payable immediately out of current resources as distinguished from a long-term liability to be met out of future resources.

expenditure, direct: It represents the expenditure on salaries, allowances, recurring contingencies and maintenance of equipment and buildings.

expenditure, indirect: It represents the amount incurred on direction, inspection, buildings, furniture, scholarships and other miscellaneous items. Its nature is such that it cannot be apportioned to each type of institution, and hence the cost per student has been worked out on the basis of direct expenditure only.

expenditure, net: This expenditure is based on the difference between the actual expenditure and the recoveries due to excess payment, etc. pointed out by the auditors.

expenditure, per capita: The annual cost of educating a person.

expenditure, recurring: It is that type of expenditure, which occurs every year. It includes items such as salary of the staff, rent of buildings, current repairs, contingent expenditure.

federal university: It is a university, which has constituent colleges within the limits of a city.

functional: Pertaining to operation or function but not to structure or substance.

grama: A village.

grama sevaka: Literally it stands for a village social worker. Under the National Extension Service a *grama sevaka* or an extension officer is generally in charge of about 10 contiguous villages.

grantha shala: Library.

grant-in-aid: A recurring expenditure given by Government or other public authority to an educational institution which is under private management for its maintenance or a non-recurring contribution for buildings or equipment.

grant-in-aid code. It lays down specifically the conditions that the private educational institutions must satisfy to be eligible for grant-in-aid. The grants-in-aid are the amounts annually granted from public funds for assisting secular education in the State.

grants, block. These grants are arbitrarily fixed sums depending upon accidental factors such as availability of funds in the government budget, the attitude of the officer sanctioning the grant-in-aid, the extent to which education has progressed, etc.

grants, capitation. These grants are given at a fixed rate per pupil in average attendance in all recognised primary schools, public and private.

grants, maintenance. These are the annual grants given to the recognised non-government educational institutions at a prescribed percentage of their total approved expenditure during the preceding year.

grants, matching: Money provided in accordance with the federal requirement that, for each rupee granted by the Central Government, the state government, local bodies, or both must provide similar though not in all cases equivalent funds for the same item of expenditure under public control.

gurukula: The house of the preceptor (*guru*). It stands for a residential educational institution.

higher secondary school: It is a secondary school for children in the age-group of 11-17. It consists of 11 classes, I to XI.

intermediate stage: The stage following the high school stage and preceding the first degree course. Its duration is of two years and covers the age-range 16-18.

janapada sabha: It is the local authority for the *tehsil* or the sub-division of a district in the old Madhya Pradesh. It exists today in the Vidarbha and Mahakoshal areas.

janata college: An institution of adult education, preparing leaders for villages.

kāthakali: A typical dance of Kerala. The dance, depicting gestures, forms a complete vocabulary. The interesting facial make-up of the dancers adds to the enjoyment of the performance.

kirtana: Devotional song in praise of Lord Kirshna.

laissez faire: (Fr., Lit.) 'Leave alone'. It means the principle of non-interference.

lakh: One hundred thousand.

local boards: These include District, Municipal and Cantonment Boards and Town Area Committees.

lower primary school: The school with the first two or three years of the primary stage (Std. I to Std. III).

madrasah: A college or an institution of Islamic higher learning.

maktab: A semi-religious and a semi-secular primary school for Mahomedans.

maulvi: A teacher of a *maktab* or *madrasah*.

middle English school: A lower secondary school with 7 or 8 classes (Std. I-VII or VIII). English is taught in the top three classes.

middle vernacular school: A lower secondary school with 7 or 8 classes (Std. I-VII or VIII). English is not taught in this institution.

mofussil: The country as distinguished from the chief towns, stations or official residencies, i.e., rural or provincial.

multipurpose school: A comprehensive school, providing instruction in more than two types of alternative courses to high school children. Seven courses are recognised at present: agriculture, commerce, fine arts, home science, humanities, science, and technical.

nataka: Drama.

naya paisa: One-hundredth of a rupee.

operational functions: They include (1) making a comprehensive institutional policy, (2) selecting and organizing personnel to meet programme requirements, (3) developing the curriculum as a means of making effective large institutional policy, (4) securing the attendance of adults and children, (5) operating the physical plant, etc.

pala: A traditional opera.

panchayat: A committee of five. It stands for an association of any number of persons instituted in villages for objects of an administrative or judicial nature.

pathashala: A school. It also stands for a Hindu religious school, which mainly teaches Sanskrit.

privately managed schools: These educational institutions are under the management of private bodies or persons. They are not managed by government or local bodies.

publicly managed schools: These educational institutions are under the management either of Government or other local bodies

raj: Administration

recognised institutions: These schools or colleges follow the courses of study, prescribed or recognised by the Government or by a University or a Board of Secondary and Intermediate education constituted by law and which satisfy one or more of these authorities, as the case may be that they all attain a reasonable standard of efficiency

regulatory control: This involves three important aspects (1) development of standards, rules and regulations, (2) examination and inspection to determine compliance; and (3) the adoption of compliance procedure

preschool child: A child past the age of infancy but below the minimum age for admission to school

professional education: This heading includes educational institutions of college standard of following professions in India agriculture commerce, teacher education, forestry, law, medicine physical education and veterinary science

sabha: An association or a public meeting

safai: Cleanliness

sangeeta: Music

sangha: An association

sevaka mandala: A squad of social workers

shramadana: Voluntary labour

social education (adult education) This concept was accepted in India in 1948. It is embodied in five-point programme to provide, first literacy second, a knowledge of the rules of health and hygiene third, training for the improvement of the adult to economic status fourth a sense of citizenship and finally, healthy forms of recreation.

special education: This heading include educational institutions of following branches in India (1) home science (2) music dancing and other fine arts (3) oriental studies, (4) sociology and social work (5) education for the handicapped (6) reformatory and (7) social education

stagnation: The retention in lower classes of a child for a period of more than one year.

statutory board: A board established by a law enacted by a legislative body

subsidies: are the grants given by a Government to any local body for educational purpose.

taluka or tehsil: The subdivision of a district.

tol: An ancient centre for higher Sanskrit learning.

upper primary: The last two or three years of the primary stage (Std. II or III to Std. V).

unitary university: It is a university without separate colleges. Its jurisdiction is generally restricted to a campus or to the limits of a city.

unrecognised institutions: These are the schools or colleges which are not recognised by Government or any other authority officially authorised to grant recognition. They do not come under the definition of recognised institutions.

vijayana mandira: An institution or temple for the development of scientific knowledge in the community.

vocational education: The heading includes educational institutions (school standard) of following branches in India: agriculture, arts and crafts, commerce, engineering, forestry, industry, medicine, physical education, teachers' training, technology, veterinary science, and other subjects.

voluntary organisation: A society, maintained by voluntary effort and working independent of the State.

vyayama shala: Gymnasium.

wastage in education: It means the premature withdrawal of a child from a school at any stage before the completion of the due course.

yuvaka mandala dala: A squad of youths for social work in rural areas.

zilla: A district.

zilla parishad: The local authority constituted at the district level for coordinating and supervising the activities of *panchayat samite*.

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